The National Parks: Shaping the System

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Using This Book

Abbreviations Used in the Tables in this Book

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# Table of Contents

## Part 1

**Introduction** 4

A Few Words About This Book 6

## Part 2

**Shaping the System** 8

*By Barry Mackintosh*

Before the National Park Service 10

The Early Years, 1916 to 1933 18

The Reorganization of 1933 24

From the Depression to Mission 66, 1933 to 1963 42

The Hartzog Years, 1964 to 1972 62

Rounding Out the System, 1973 to 1984 80

Ideals Into Reality 96

## Part 3

**Appendix** 100

Affiliated Areas 102

Maps:

The National Park System 103

Growth of the National Park System 107

Index 110
Part 1

Castle Geyser, Yellowstone National Park

Introduction
When did the National Park System begin? The usual response is 1872, when the first national park, Yellowstone, was established. Yet certain elements later added to the System—the parks of the Nation’s Capital, Hot Springs, and parts of Yosemite—predate Yellowstone as parklands. And there was no real “system” of parks until a bureau, the National Park Service, was created in 1916 to coordinate the administration of those areas previously reserved under the Department of the Interior’s jurisdiction.

With the establishment of a systematic park administration, the way was paved for annexation of comparable areas from other agencies. Efforts toward a fully comprehensive and unified National Park System were accelerated in a 1933 Government reorganization, whereby the Service acquired the national monuments, military parks, and certain other areas of the War Department, the national monuments of the Department of Agriculture, and the National Capital Parks. With the major elements of today’s System thus brought together, the Service became the primary Federal entity preserving the Nation’s most significant natural and cultural resources.

The following account of this evolution is an extensively revised edition of Ronald F. Lee’s *Family Tree of the National Park System* (Eastern National Park and Monument Association, 1972). That book took the story to 1972, the centennial year of Yellowstone’s establishment. Its orientation and reference value to Park Service personnel and others inspired requests for an updating to encompass the major expansion of the System—a doubling of the lands—since that time.

Yet more than just a new chapter was needed. *Family Tree* was organized around the three management categories—natural, historical, recreational—to which virtually all parks were formally assigned beginning in 1964. Because the assignment of each area to a single management category failed to recognize the diverse resources many possessed, this categorization was officially discontinued in 1977. The present account refers to natural, historical, and recreational parks only in an informal sense, consistent with current practice.

The multiplicity of designations applied to the individual units of the System is a recurring irritant to those who value logic and consistency. Essentially similar historic battlefields are variously titled...
national military parks, national battlefields, and national battlefield parks; one is a national battlefield site. Some historic fortifications are national historic sites, others are national monuments. Conversely, the same national monument designation is attached to areas as vast as Death Valley and as small as Castle Clinton.

These 20-odd labels are rooted in the legislative and administrative history of the System, with some in greater vogue at certain times than others. Some are fairly descriptive of the areas so designated while others are not. Some, such as national recreation areas and national preserves, generally denote more permissive development or use than others. And while national parks are usually the largest and finest natural areas, and while national historic sites are all small cultural units, exceptions in many categories render it impossible to rank or evaluate park areas by their labels alone.

The dates used for park areas are generally those of the earliest laws, executive proclamations, departmental orders, or other instruments authorizing, establishing, or otherwise creating them. In some cases, these actions occurred before the areas were put under National Park Service administration. Such factors demonstrate why a straightforward answer to the question of origins is difficult.

In an act approved August 18, 1970, Congress defined the National Park System as including "any area of land and water now or hereafter administered by the Secretary of the Interior through the National Park Service for park, monument, historic, parkway, recreational, or other purposes." This legal definition excludes a number of national historic sites and other areas not owned or administered by the Service. These are now administratively classed as "affiliated areas" and are listed in the Appendix.

Ronald Lee's *Family Tree*, with its chronological listing of all park additions and concise elaboration of significant examples, developments, and trends, was for more than a decade the single best treatment of when and how the National Park System evolved. This book builds on *Family Tree*, documenting the major changes that occurred in the 1970s and early 1980s. Like that source, this work strives to provide a handy reference to those concerned with the shaping of the National Park System.
National Parks, 1872-1916  Yellowstone National Park, established March 1, 1872, was the first area so designated anywhere. John Ise, historian of national park policy, called the Yellowstone Act "so dramatic a departure from the general public land policy of Congress, it seems almost a miracle." Although California's Yosemite State Park, established by Federal cession eight years earlier to protect Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Big Tree Grove, was an important conservation milestone, and although Hot Springs Reservation dated from 1832, Yellowstone was the first unqualified embodiment of the national park idea—the world's premier example of large-scale natural preservation for all the people. Since then the idea has been adopted around the world.

The remarkable Yellowstone Act withdrew some two million acres of public land in Wyoming and Montana territories from settlement, occupancy, or sale and dedicated it "as a public park or pleasure-ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people." The law also provided for preservation of all timber, mineral deposits, natural curiosities, and wonders within the park "in their natural condition." The twin purposes of preservation and public enjoyment, so susceptible to conflict yet so eloquently reaffirmed by Congress when the National Park Service was created in 1916, were there from the beginning.

After Yellowstone's establishment, the national park idea was attacked by special interests, stoutly defended by friends in Congress, and successively refined and confirmed. Fourteen more national parks were established in the West between 1872 and 1916, most of them closely following the Yellowstone prototype. One, Mackinac Island National Park, established three years after Yellowstone, had a short life, being ceded to Michigan in 1895.

Each of these national parks has its own history. Collectively, this history is dotted with such important names in conservation as Frederick Law Olmsted, Cornelius Hedges, Nathaniel P. Langford, Ferdinand V. Hayden, John Muir, William Gladstone Steel, George Bird Grinnell, J. Horace McFarland, secretaries of the Interior from Carl Schurz to Franklin K. Lane, many members of Congress, including Rep. John Fletcher Lacy of Iowa and Sen. George G. Vest
of Missouri, and President Theodore Roosevelt.

The next great scenic national parks after Yellowstone—Sequoia, General Grant, and Yosemite, all in California—were not established until 1890, 18 years later. General Grant and Yosemite were set aside as "reserved forest lands," but like Sequoia they were modeled after Yellowstone and named national parks by the Secretary of the Interior. Then in the Forest Reserve Act of 1891, Congress separated the idea of forest conservation from the national park idea by authorizing the President to proclaim permanent forest reserves on the public domain.

This is the fork in the road beyond which national parks and national forests proceed separately. Within 16 years, Presidents Grover Cleveland, William McKinley, and particularly Theodore Roosevelt proclaimed 159 national forests containing more than 150 million acres. By 1916 Presidents William Howard Taft and Woodrow Wilson had added another 26 million acres. During this same period each new national park had to be authorized by an individual act of Congress, usually after years of promotional effort. Nevertheless by 1916, 11 more parks, including such superlative areas as Mount Rainier in Washington, Crater Lake in Oregon, Glacier in Montana, Rocky Mountain and Mesa Verde in Colorado, and Hawaii on the islands of Maui and Hawaii, had been added and Mackinac Island had been divested, giving the National Park Service 14 national parks comprising some 4,750,000 acres upon its creation.

Establishment of these first national parks reflected in part changing American attitudes toward nature. The old colonial and pioneering emphasis on rapid exploitation of seemingly inexhaustible resources was at last giving way, among some influential Americans, to a new awareness of the beauty and wonder of nature. In *Nature and the American* (University of California, 1957), Hans Huth presented a fascinating account of the changing viewpoints toward nature in the United States that preceded and accompanied the rise of the conservation movement. America's leadership in national parks is further explained by Roderick Nash in "The American Invention of National Parks" (*American Quarterly*, Fall 1970). He credits four principal factors: our unique experience with nature on
the American continent, our democratic ideals, our vast public domain, and our affluent society.

The movement that resulted in making Yellowstone the world's first national park had its specific origins in the discoveries of the Folsom-Cook Expedition of 1869, the Washburn-Langford-Doane Expedition of 1870, and the Hayden Expedition of 1871. What might have befallen these discoveries was suggested in a diary account of the 1870 expedition published years later by Nathaniel P. Langford: "Last night, and also this morning in camp, the entire party had a rather unusual discussion. The proposition was made by some member that we utilize the result of our exploration by taking up quarter sections of land at the most prominent points of interest, and a general discussion followed. One member of our party suggested that if there could be secured by pre-emption a good title to two or three quarter sections of land opposite the lower fall of the Yellowstone and extending down the river along the canyon, they would eventually become a source of great profit to the owners. Another member of the party thought that it would be more desirable to take up a quarter section of land at the Upper Geyser Basin, for the reason that that locality could be more easily reached by tourists and pleasure seekers. A third suggestion was that each member of the party pre-empt a claim, and in order that no one should have an advantage over the others, the whole should be thrown into a common pool for the benefit of the entire party.

"Mr. [Cornelius] Hedges then said that he did not approve of any of these plans—that there ought to be no private ownership of any portion of that region, but that the whole of it ought to be set apart as a great National Park, and that each one of us ought to make an effort to have this accomplished."

Although the national park idea predated the occasion described (with literary license) by Langford, his story vividly portrays its essence: the placement of public good above private gain. Fortunately, the consensus reached by the explorers and others advocating public protection of Yellowstone's wonders won sufficient political support to become written into law. The first national park stands as an enduring symbol of enlightened governmental action "for the benefit and enjoyment of the people."

When establishment of the National Park Service came under consideration in Congress in 1916, J. Horace McFarland, president of the American Civic Association and an outstanding conservationist, expressed the views of many in his testimony before the House Public Lands Committee: "The parks are the Nation's pleasure grounds and the Nation's restoring places, recreation grounds. . . . The national
parks, Mr. Chairman, are an American idea; it is one thing we have that has not been imported. . . . Each one of these national parks in America is the result of some great man's thought of service to his fellow citizens. These parks did not just happen; they came about because earnest men and women became violently excited at the possibility of these great assets passing from public control. . . . These great parks are, in the highest degree, as they stand today, a sheer expression of democracy, the separation of these lands from the public domain, to be held for the public, instead of being opened to private settlement."

National Monuments, 1906-1916   While the early national parks were being established, a separate movement got under way to protect the magnificent cliff dwellings, pueblo ruins, and early missions discovered by cowboys, army officers, ethnologists, and other explorers on the vast public lands of the Southwest. They were especially threatened by plunder and destruction at the hands of pot hunters and vandals. The effort to secure protective legislation began among historically minded scientists and civic leaders in Boston and spread to similar circles in Washington, New York, Denver, Santa Fe, and other places during the 1880s and 1890s. In 1889 Congress authorized the President to reserve from settlement or sale the land on which the Casa Grande ruin was situated in Arizona. President Benjamin Harrison proclaimed the Casa Grande Ruin Reservation three years later. In 1904, at the request of the General Land Office, Dr. Edgar Lee Hewett made a comprehensive review of Indian antiquities on Federal land in Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, and Utah. After consultation with scientists in the Smithsonian's Bureau of American Ethnology and elsewhere, he recommended specific sites for preservation. With important help from Rep. John F. Lacey and Sen. Henry Cabot Lodge, an Antiquities Act was passed in 1906 to help protect such areas and structures.

The act authorized the President "to declare by public proclamation historic landmarks, historic and prehistoric structures, and other objects of historic or scientific interest" situated on lands owned or controlled by the United States Government to be national monuments. It also prohibited excavation or appropriation of antiquities on Federal lands without a permit. Unfortunately the act made no provision for surveys such as that undertaken by Hewett. The Department of the Interior, along with the departments of Agriculture and War which also had jurisdiction over eligible sites and structures, therefore relied for proposals upon a variety of sources: recommendations from individual scientists and Government offi-
cials exploring the West, accidental discoveries by cowboys and prospectors, offers by private citizens of donations of land suitable for monument designation, and projects conceived by local citizens and sponsored by members of Congress.

The first national monument, proclaimed by President Theodore Roosevelt some three months after he signed the Antiquities Act, was Devils Tower. It was established to protect a prominent Wyoming landmark, an 867-foot massive stone shaft visible for a great distance and a guidepost over the centuries for Indians, explorers, and settlers. In December 1906 three more monuments were created: El Morro, New Mexico, famous for its prehistoric petroglyphs and hundreds of later inscriptions including those of 17th century Spanish explorers and 19th century American pioneers and settlers; Montezuma Castle, Arizona, one of the best preserved cliff dwellings in the United States; and Petrified Forest, Arizona, known for Indian ruins and petroglyphs as well as extensive deposits of petrified wood. The first historic structure made a national monument was the Spanish mission of Tumacacori, Arizona, in September 1908. By the time the National Park Service was created in 1916, the national monument idea was well established as a means of protecting natural and cultural resources.

Between 1906 and 1978, under authority of the Antiquities Act, 12 Presidents proclaimed 99 national monuments—38 predominantly historic or prehistoric and 61 "objects of . . . scientific interest." Extremely loose construction of "scientific objects" led to executive establishment of vast natural areas as national monuments—national parks in all but name. Of the 99 monuments that have been proclaimed, 57 retained that designation in 1984, 27 became or contributed to 24 national parks or national preserves, 3 became national historical parks, 2 are now national historic sites, 1 is a national battlefield, 1 is part of a national parkway, and 8 small ones were abolished. The Antiquities Act is the original authority of more than a quarter of the units of today's National Park System.

Besides the national monuments proclaimed by Presidents under the Antiquities Act, 33 other areas were authorized with this designation by individual acts of Congress. Twenty-two remained in the System as national monuments in 1984. The remainder have been retitled or never became part of the System.

Because of its application to such diverse areas, national monument designation communicates little about a particular area's characteristics. Congressional resistance to what was regarded as undue use of the Antiquities Act has worked against Presidential proclamations in recent decades. President Jimmy Carter's stopgap creation of 11 Alaska monuments for the National Park System when
Congress failed to pass related park legislation in 1978 is the notable exception. Most of the 11 national monuments individually authorized by Congress from 1965 to 1980 are prehistoric sites and relatively small natural areas not readily designated otherwise; the System's more descriptive titles—national historic site, national seashore, national battlefield—have come to be favored where applicable.

**Mineral Springs, 1832-1916** Besides the national parks and national monuments, Federal reservations were established at two mineral springs. Since ancient times the soothing qualities of bathing in hot waters have attracted people to these sources of rejuvenation. Medicinal bathing reached its height of popularity in Europe during the 18th and 19th centuries when tens of thousands frequented such world famous spas as Bath, Aix-les-Bains, Aachen, Baden-Baden, and Carlsbad (now Karlovy Vary). As mineral springs were discovered in the New World, they too came to be highly valued.

When significant springs were found on the western public lands, the Federal Government became interested. In 1832 Hot Springs, Arkansas Territory, was set aside to protect 47 hot springs, which were thought to have medicinal properties, emerging from a fault at the base of a mountain. In 1870 Congress recognized the area as the Hot Springs Reservation.

In 1902 the Federal Government purchased 32 mineral springs near Sulfur, Oklahoma Territory, from the Choctaw and Chickasaw tribes. Like the Hot Springs Reservation, the Sulfur Springs Reservation was placed under the Secretary of the Interior. The area was enlarged, and in 1906 Congress renamed it Piatt National Park in honor of the recently deceased Sen. Orville Platt of Connecticut, who had been prominent in Indian affairs.

Hot Springs Reservation and Piatt National Park were assigned to the National Park Service upon its creation in 1916. Hot Springs was designated a national park in 1921, but it remained an urbanized health resort and spa rather than a scenic or wilderness area. Piatt, an equally anomalous national park, lost its designation in 1976 when it was incorporated in the new Chickasaw National Recreation Area.
Executive and Legislative Actions Relating to Areas Managed by the Department of the Interior through 1916

1832
April 20 Hot Springs Reservation, Arkansas (redesignated Hot Springs NP 1921)

1872
March 1 Yellowstone NP, Wyoming, Montana, and Idaho

1875
March 3 Mackinac Island NP, Michigan (ceded to Michigan 1895)

1889
March 2 Casa Grande Ruin Reservation, Arizona (redesignated Casa Grande NM 1918)

1890
Sept. 25 Sequoia NP, California
Oct. 1 General Grant NP, California (incorporated in Kings Canyon NP 1940)
Oct. 1 Yosemite NP, California

1899
March 22 Mount Rainier NP, Washington

1902
May 22 Crater Lake NP, Oregon

1903
Jan. 9 Wind Cave NP, South Dakota

1904
April 27 Sully's Hill NP, North Dakota (transferred to Agriculture Dept. as game preserve 1931)

1906
June 29 Mesa Verde NP, Colorado
June 29 Platt NP, Oklahoma (incorporated in Chickasaw NRA 1976)
Sept. 24 Devils Tower NM, Wyoming
Dec. 8 El Morro NM, New Mexico
Dec. 8 Montezuma Castle NM, Arizona
Dec. 8 Petrified Forest NM, Arizona (redesignated a NP 1962)

1907
March 11 Chaco Canyon NM, New Mexico (incorporated in Chaco Culture NHP 1980)

1908
Jan. 9 Muir Woods NM, California
April 16 Natural Bridges NM, Utah
May 11 Lewis and Clark Cavern NM, Montana (abolished 1937)
Sept. 15 Tumacacori NM, Arizona
1909
March 20 Navajo NM, Arizona
July 31 Mukuntuweap NM, Utah (incorporated in Zion NP 1919)
Sept. 21 Shoshone Cavern NM, Wyoming (abolished 1954)
Nov. 1 Gran Quivira NM, New Mexico (incorporated in Salinas NM 1980)

1910
March 23 Sitka NM, Alaska (redesignated a NHP 1972)
May 11 Glacier NP, Montana
May 30 Rainbow Bridge NM, Utah
Dec. 12 Pinnacles NM, California (date of transfer from Agriculture Dept.)

1911
May 24 Colorado NM, Colorado

1914
Jan. 31 Papago Saguaro NM, Arizona (abolished 1930)

1915
Jan. 26 Rocky Mountain NP, Colorado
Oct. 4 Dinosaur NM, Colorado and Utah

1916
July 8 Sieur de Monts NM, Maine (incorporated in Lafayette NP 1919; redesignated Acadia NP 1929)
Aug. 1 Hawaii NP, Hawaii (split into Haleakala NP and Hawaii NP 1960; latter redesignated Hawaii Volcanoes NP 1961)
Aug. 9 Capulin Mountain NM, New Mexico
Aug. 9 Lassen Volcanic NP, California (incorporated Cinder Cone NM and Lassen Peak NM from Agriculture Dept.)

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A new era for national parks and monuments opened on August 25, 1916, 44 years after the establishment of Yellowstone, when President Woodrow Wilson signed legislation creating a new Federal bureau, the National Park Service, in the Department of the Interior. This action culminated years of efforts to establish a separate bureau to administer and coordinate policies and plans for parks and monuments by, among others, J. Horace McFarland of the American Civic Association, Secretaries of the Interior Walter L. Fisher and Franklin K. Lane, Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., Reps. William Kent and John E. Raker of California, Sen. Reed Smoot of Utah, and Stephen T. Mather and Horace M. Albright, who became the first and second directors of the Service.

The act created the Service "to promote and regulate the use of the Federal areas known as national parks, monuments, and reservations hereinafter specified by such means and measures as conform to the fundamental purpose of the said parks, monuments, and reservations, which purpose is to conserve the scenery and the natural and historic objects and the wild life therein and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations."

The act provided that the Service would supervise the national parks and monuments then under the Interior Department, together with the Hot Springs Reservation and "such other national parks and reservations of like character as may be hereafter created by Congress." On the date of the act Interior administered 14 national parks, 21 national monuments, Hot Springs Reservation, and Casa Grande Ruin. The new bureau was therefore launched with responsibility for 37 diverse areas.

The partnership of Franklin Lane, Stephen Mather, and Horace Albright was one of those happy circumstances in which a blend of energies and foresight created an institution exceeding hopes and expectations. They seemed to work in a charged atmosphere in which ideals were transformed quickly into reality. Supported in their work by Lane's successors as secretaries of the Interior, Presidents, members of Congress and conservation leaders, Mather and Albright established many of the Service policies and programs familiar to
present-day visitors and employees—the uniformed ranger service, the information and interpretive programs, the role of the concessioners, the cooperating associations, and the professional natural and cultural resources management functions.

During this period, despite the dislocations of World War I and the onset of the Depression, the System almost doubled in size. Public lands could still be secured for national parks and monuments, and large wilderness tracts were set aside. Lands also were donated for the first national parks east of the Mississippi, making the System more truly national.

The increase in natural area holdings was spectacular. Six new national parks were authorized or established, and six others sprang from former national monuments or other reservations. Eleven national monuments protecting natural features were proclaimed on Department of the Interior lands and one was authorized by an act of Congress.

The first national park following establishment of the National Park Service was Mount McKinley, authorized in 1917 to protect the Dall or white Alaska mountain sheep, caribou, Alaska moose, grizzly bear, and other wildlife on and around the highest mountain in North America. The two Alaska national monuments, Katmai and Glacier Bay, were each larger than any national park and long the largest areas in the System. Katmai was established in 1918 to protect the scene of one of the greatest volcanic eruptions of recorded history, which occurred in June 1912. Glacier Bay, proclaimed in 1925, contains some 16 great tidewater glaciers and their mountain setting, together with abundant wildlife. Both became national parks in 1980.

The establishment of national parks in the eastern half of the United States was a significant advance, building support for the Service and the System in the most populous part of the Nation. Sieur de Monts National Monument on the rugged Maine coast became Lafayette National Park in 1919 and was renamed Acadia National Park 10 years later. Three were authorized in 1926: Great Smoky Mountains National Park, Tennessee and North Carolina, in the highest section of the Appalachians; Shenandoah National Park along more than 100 miles of Virginia’s Blue Ridge, affording superb
views of the Shenandoah Valley and surrounding country; and Mammoth Cave National Park, Kentucky, protecting a great limestone cavern from commercial exploitation. Isle Royale National Park, Michigan, authorized in 1931, encompassed a 45-mile-long wilderness island in Lake Superior noted for its moose, timber wolves, and prehistoric copper mines. The eastern parks could not be carved out of the public domain but had to be acquired through donation, sometimes following extensive land acquisition efforts by states and private philanthropists. Especially notable were the contributions of John D. Rockefeller, Jr., to Acadia and Great Smoky Mountains.

All the other natural areas added to the System during the period were in the West. Prominent among the new western national parks were Grand Canyon in Arizona, Zion and Bryce Canyon in Utah, Grand Teton in Wyoming, and Carlsbad Caverns, New Mexico. National monuments included Craters of the Moon, Idaho; Lava Beds and Death Valley, California; Great Sand Dunes, Colorado; White Sands, New Mexico; Arches, Utah; and Badlands, North Dakota. The last two became national parks in the 1970s.

The increase in cultural holdings was also significant, pointing the way toward the monumental 1933 reorganization. Six of the new monuments were prehistoric sites that included spectacular Canyon de Chelly, Arizona, still occupied by Navajos; and Bandelier, New Mexico, which was proclaimed on Department of Agriculture land in 1916 and transferred to the Park Service in 1932. Among six new historical areas were the first to join the System in the East—foreshadowers of very many more. George Washington Birthplace National Monument, on the Potomac River at Wakefield, Virginia; Colonial National Monument, embracing Jamestown and Yorktown in close relationship to Williamsburg, Virginia; and Morristown National Historical Park, New Jersey, George Washington's headquarters during two severe winters of the Revolutionary War, launched the Service on a new course in historic site preservation that would greatly influence the future growth of the National Park System.
National Park System Additions 1917-1933

1917
Feb. 26 Mount McKinley NP, Alaska (incorporated in Denali NP and NPres 1980)
June 29 Verendrye NM, North Dakota (abolished 1956)
1918
Sept. 24 Katmai NM, Alaska (incorporated in Katmai NP and NPres 1980)
1919
Feb. 26 Grand Canyon NP, Arizona (incorporated 1908 Grand Canyon NM; transferred from Agriculture Dept. Aug. 15)
Feb. 26 Lafayette NP, Maine (incorporated Sieur de Monts NM; redesignated Acadia NP 1929)
Nov. 19 Zion NP, Utah (incorporated Mukuntuweap NM)
Dec. 12 Scotts Bluff NM, Nebraska
Dec. 12 Yucca House NM, Colorado
1922
Oct. 21 Fossil Cycad NM, South Dakota (abolished 1956)
1923
Jan. 24 Aztec Ruins NM, New Mexico
March 2 Hovenweep NM, Colorado and Utah
May 31 Pipe Spring NM, Arizona
Oct. 25 Carlsbad Cave NM, New Mexico (redesignated Carlsbad Caverns NP 1930)
1924
May 2 Craters of the Moon NM, Idaho
Dec. 9 Wupatki NM, Arizona
1925
Feb. 26 Glacier Bay NM, Alaska (incorporated in Glacier Bay NP and NPres 1980)
Nov. 21 Lava Beds NM, California
1926
May 22 Great Smoky Mountains NP, North Carolina and Tennessee
May 22 Shenandoah NP, Virginia
May 25 Mammoth Cave NP, Kentucky
1928
Feb. 25 Bryce Canyon NP, Utah (incorporated Bryce Canyon NM from Agriculture Dept.)
1929
Feb. 26 Grand Teton NP, Wyoming
March 4 Badlands NM, South Dakota (redesignated a NP 1978)
April 12 Arches NM, Utah (redesignated a NP 1971)

1930
Jan. 23 George Washington Birthplace NM, Virginia
July 3 Colonial NM, Virginia (redesignated a NHP 1936)

1931
Feb. 14 Canyon de Chelly NM, Arizona
March 3 Isle Royale NP, Michigan

1932
Feb. 25 Bandelier NM, New Mexico (date of transfer from Agriculture Dept.)
March 17 Great Sand Dunes NM, Colorado
Dec. 22 Grand Canyon NM, Arizona (incorporated in Grand Canyon NP 1975)

1933
Jan. 18 White Sands NM, New Mexico
Feb. 11 Death Valley NM, California and Nevada
March 2 Black Canyon of the Gunnison NM, Colorado
March 2 Morristown NHP, New Jersey
The Reorganization of 1933

We come now to one of the most significant events in the evolution of the National Park System. An act of Congress approved by outgoing President Herbert Hoover on March 3, 1933, authorized the President to reorganize the executive branch of the Federal Government. Using this authority, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed executive orders on June 10 and July 28 consolidating all national parks and national monuments, all national military parks, 11 national cemeteries, all national memorials, and the parks of the National Capital under National Park Service administration. The story of how this amalgamation was finally brought about after 17 years of effort is told in fascinating detail by Horace M. Albright, then NPS director, in *Origins of National Park Service Administration of Historic Sites* (Eastern National Park and Monument Association, 1971).

The reorganization had at least three major consequences. It made the National Park Service the bureau responsible for virtually all Federally owned public parks, monuments, and memorials, greatly strengthening its institutional position and importance. It changed assumptions of what the National Park System should contain by adding new kinds of areas not previously considered as either parks or monuments. And it substantially increased in number and geographic diversity the System's holdings by adding a dozen predominantly natural areas in 10 western states and nearly 50 historical areas in 7 eastern states and the District of Columbia.

**National Capital Parks, 1790-1933** The parks of the National Capital, absorbed in the reorganization, are the oldest elements of today's National Park System, tracing their origins to the beginnings of the District of Columbia in 1790-1791. The commissioners appointed by President George Washington to lay out the 10-mile-square Federal district on the Potomac were given control of all public lands within it, including parks. The office established by the commissioners in 1791 was succeeded over the years by several offices with different names but similar functions. The Office of Public Buildings and Public Parks of the National Capital was in charge in 1933, when it was abolished in the reorganization and its functions transferred to the National Park Service.
President George Washington, who chose the site of the capital near his home at Mount Vernon, was intensely interested in the new seat of government. Early in 1791 he met with owners or proprietors of lands proposed for the Federal city and signed a purchase agreement resulting in acquisition of 17 different reservations. Reservation 1 became the site of the White House and its grounds, Lafayette Park, and the Ellipse; Reservation 2 served for the Capitol and the eastern half of the Mall; Reservation 3 became the site of the Washington Monument. By 1898, 301 park areas had been developed on the original 17 reservations.

The largest single park within the District of Columbia is Rock Creek Park, authorized on September 27, 1890—two days after Sequoia and four days before Yosemite. Congress carried over some language of the Yellowstone legislation into all three enactments. Like Yellowstone, Rock Creek Park was “dedicated and set apart as a public park or pleasure ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people of the United States,” where all timber, animals, and curiosities were to be retained “in their natural condition, as nearly as possible.” Rock Creek Park remains a premier example today of a natural urban park.

A final word on the term “National Capital Parks:” it has been variously used over the years as a collective designation for all the national parklands in and around Washington and as the name of the Park Service office administering them. As of 1984, National Capital Parks officially denoted only those miscellaneous lands in the District of Columbia and nearby Maryland not otherwise classed as discrete units of the National Park System. Although the designation thus excluded the National Mall, Washington Monument, Rock Creek Park, and areas of similar status, it is still often used informally to encompass them as well.

National Memorials, 1783-1933 National memorials in and outside Washington formed the most distinctly different class of areas added by the reorganization. They include such great national symbols as the Statue of Liberty, Washington Monument, and Mount Rushmore. Not all memorials bear that designation; the Statue of
Liberty, for example, is officially a national monument. Here “memorial” will be used generically to refer to those properties and features that are primarily commemorative. They are often not on sites historically associated with their subjects, but even when they are, they focus on commemorative structures or other features rather than preservation or restoration of the historic settings.

The first Federal action toward a national memorial now in the System occurred in August 1783, when the Continental Congress resolved “that an equestrian statue of General Washington be erected where the residence of Congress shall be established.” The L’Enfant Plan of 1791 provided a prominent location for this statue on the Mall at the intersection of lines drawn west from the Capitol and south from the White House. President Washington approved the site but concluded that the expense of the statue was then unwarranted.

Washington’s death on December 14, 1799, inspired passage of a congressional resolution for a marble monument in the Capitol commemorating the great events of his military and political life. The plans languished, and when the centennial of Washington’s birth arrived in 1832 with no satisfactory monument in the National Capital, civic leaders organized the Washington National Monument Society to erect an appropriate memorial from private subscriptions. In 1848 Congress transferred to the society the site originally specified by L’Enfant for the equestrian statue, and the cornerstone of the Washington Monument was laid that July 4. But progress was slow, and the Civil War intervened. When the Nation’s centennial arrived in 1876 with the monument only one-third completed, Congress passed legislation authorizing transfer of the structure and site to the United States for completion and subsequent maintenance. The monument was finished in accordance with a simplified design and was dedicated in 1885.

During the centennial, France presented the Statue of Liberty to the United States as a gift. On March 3, 1877, President Ulysses S. Grant approved a joint resolution of Congress authorizing acceptance of the statue, provision of a suitable site in New York Harbor, and preservation of the structure “as a monument of art and the continued good will of the great nation which aided us in our struggle for freedom.” In effect a memorial to the French alliance, the Statue of Liberty was dedicated on October 28, 1886, and was proclaimed a national monument under the War Department, its custodian, on October 15, 1924.

The Lincoln Memorial was authorized by an act approved February 9, 1911, to occupy a site on the extended axis of the Mall in Washington as proposed by the McMillan Plan. The work of archi-
tect Henry Bacon and sculptor Daniel Chester French, it was
dedicated May 30, 1922. Another memorial to Lincoln, enshrining his
supposed birthplace cabin at Hodgenville, Kentucky, was erected in
1907-1911 from a design by John Russell Pope, later architect of the
Thomas Jefferson Memorial in Washington. The birthplace property
and this memorial building were transferred to the United States in
1916 and administered by the War Department as Abraham Lincoln
National Park. Under the National Park Service after 1933, it was
ultimately redesignated a national historic site; the character of the
site's development, however, makes it in effect a national memorial.

The famous memorial to Ulysses S. Grant, the Union commander
and U.S. President, was dedicated in New York City on April 27,
1897. Grant's Tomb, as it was commonly known, was transferred by
the city and the Grant Monument Association to the Federal
Government in 1958 and was placed under the Park Service as
General Grant National Memorial the next year.

Congress authorized six more national memorials before the 1933
reorganization: a memorial to Portuguese explorer Juan Rodriguez
Cabrillo in California, proclaimed Cabrillo National Monument
under the War Department in 1913; Perry's Victory Memorial, Ohio,
in 1919; Mount Rushmore National Memorial, South Dakota, in
1925; Kill Devil Hill Monument National Memorial, North Carolina
(later Wright Brothers National Memorial), in 1927; the George
Rogers Clark memorial in Indiana, 1928; and the Theodore Roose-
velt memorial (Theodore Roosevelt Island) in Washington, D.C.,
1932. Cabrillo National Monument and the future Wright Brothers
National Memorial were transferred from the War Department and
the Theodore Roosevelt memorial from the Office of Public Build-
ing and Public Parks of the National Capital in the reorganization.
The Park Service was assigned the fiscal functions of the Mount
Rushmore National Memorial Commission in 1933 and the memorial
itself in 1939. Perry's Victory Memorial was administered by a similar
commission until added to the National Park System as Perry's
Victory and International Peace Memorial National Monument in
1936. (The national monument suffix was dropped in 1972.) The
George Rogers Clark memorial came into the System through a 1966
act authorizing the George Rogers Clark National Historical Park.
Several historic sites proposed for the park were never acquired,
leaving the area essentially a national memorial.

The Custis-Lee Mansion in Arlington, Virginia, transferred from the
War Department in the reorganization, was redesignated Arlington
House, The Robert E. Lee Memorial, by an act of Congress approved
June 30, 1972. Although thus prescribed as the Nation's memorial to
Lee, Arlington House is a historic structure restored and preserved to reflect his occupancy, placing it outside our working definition of a national memorial; it is a de facto national historic site.

**National Military Parks, 1781-1933** The national military parks—battlefields bearing this and several other designations—have a long and relatively unfamiliar history. By 1933 the War Department had developed a national military park system that numbered 19 areas, of which 11 were national military parks, 7 were national battlefield sites, and 1 was a “monument and grounds.”

American battlefield commemoration began when the Continental Congress, inspired by news of the victory at Yorktown in October 1781, authorized “to be erected at York, Virginia, a marble column, adorned with emblems of the alliance between the United States and His Most Christian Majesty; and inscribed with a succinct narrative of the surrender...” Funds were not immediately available, and Congress did not follow through until the centennial of the surrender in 1881. Then the Yorktown Column was raised, exactly according to the resolution of the Continental Congress. It is now a prominent feature of Colonial National Historical Park.

The battlefield monument idea received its greatest impetus in Boston when Daniel Webster, Edward Everett, and other prominent citizens formed the Bunker Hill Battle Monument Association in 1823 to save part of the historic field there and erect on it a great commemorative obelisk. Webster delivered a moving oration before a large audience at the cornerstone laying in 1825. The Bunker Hill Monument demonstrated how commemorative sentiment might be crystallized and became the prototype for many other battlefield monuments. During the centennial years of the Revolution, 1876-1883, Congress appropriated Federal funds to supplement local contributions for Revolutionary War battle monuments. Through this means imposing tributes were erected at Bennington Battlefield, Saratoga, Newburgh, and Oriskany, New York; Kings Mountain, South Carolina; Monmouth, New Jersey; and Groton, Connecticut. Like the Yorktown Column, the Bunker Hill, Kings Mountain, and Saratoga monuments later became features of units of the National Park System.

The Revolutionary War tradition embodied in such monuments, shared by North and South, helped draw the two sections together after the Civil War. Former soldiers from South Carolina and Virginia participated in the centennial observance of the Battle of Bunker Hill in Boston in 1875, the first time Union and Confederate veterans publicly fraternized after the war. The practice of joint reunions soon spread to Civil War battlefields, culminating in spectacular veterans’
encampments at Gettysburg in 1888 and Chattanooga in 1895.

Previously on April 30, 1864, before the Civil War had ended, Pennsylvania had chartered the Gettysburg Battlefield Memorial Association to commemorate "the great deeds of valor . . . and the signal events which render these battle-grounds illustrious." A preservation society also began work at Chickamauga and Chattanooga. With such interest and support, Congress decided to go beyond the original battlefield monument concept. By the end of the century it had authorized the first four national military parks—Chickamauga and Chattanooga in 1890, Shiloh in 1894, Gettysburg in 1895, and Vicksburg in 1899—and Antietam National Battlefield Site in 1890. It was contemplated that the Federal Government would acquire the lands with appropriated funds and preserve the cultural features of each battlefield while states, units, and associations would provide monuments at appropriate locations. Preservation, memorialization, and interpretation would thus be combined.

Land acquisition for Gettysburg National Military Park led to a Supreme Court ruling important to the later expansion of the National Park System. A local electric railway company contested the condemnation of its right-of-way through the battlefield, claiming that preserving and marking lines of battle were not public uses justifying the taking of private property. In 1896 Justice Rufus W. Peckham handed down the court's unanimous decision, which read in part: "The battle of Gettysburg was one of the great battles of the world. . . . The existence of the government itself, and the perpetuity of our institutions depended on the result. . . . Can it be that the government is without power to preserve the land, and properly mark out the various sites upon which this struggle took place? Can it not erect monuments provided for by these acts of Congress, or even take possession of the field of battle, in the name of and for the benefit of all the citizens of the country, for the present and for the future? Such a use seems necessarily not only a public use, but one so closely connected with the welfare of the republic itself as to be within the powers granted Congress by the constitution for the purpose of protecting and preserving the whole country." Had the court ruled otherwise, future land acquisitions for similar purposes would have been severely hampered.

The 1907 authorization of the Chalmette Monument, commemorating the Battle of New Orleans during the War of 1812, was a step away from the recent focus on the Civil War. Guilford Courthouse National Military Park, North Carolina, authorized a decade later, encompassed the first Revolutionary War battlefield so preserved. Confronted with many proposals, Congress in 1926 authorized the
War Department to survey all the historic battlefields in the United States and prepare a preservation and commemoration plan. Largely as a result of this survey, 11 more national military parks and battlefield sites were added to Federal holdings before 1933: Fort Necessity in Pennsylvania, site of the opening engagement of the French and Indian War; the Revolutionary War battlefields of Cowpens and Kings Mountain in South Carolina and Moores Creek in North Carolina; the Civil War sites of Appomattox Court House, Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County, and Petersburg in Virginia, Brices Cross Roads and Tupelo in Mississippi, and Fort Donelson and Stones River in Tennessee.

One of the most important battlefields acquired by the Government during this period, Yorktown, went not to the War Department but to the National Park Service as a component of Colonial National Monument in 1930. This acquisition and the authorization of another Revolutionary War area, Morristown National Historical Park, on March 2, 1933, thrust the Park Service into the previously exclusive domain of the War Department and elevated its credentials as the logical recipient of the latter’s military parks. On August 10, 1933, the effective date of the executive orders implementing the reorganization, Colonial and Morristown were joined by the 19 battlefields enumerated above.

Most national cemeteries under the National Park Service are closely related to battlefield parks. Acquired with them in the reorganization were Antietam (Sharpsburg) National Cemetery, Maryland; Battlesground National Cemetery, Washington, D.C.; Chattanooga National Cemetery, Tennessee (returned to the War Department in 1944); Fort Donelson (Dover) National Cemetery, Tennessee; Fredericksburg National Cemetery, Virginia; Gettysburg National Cemetery, Pennsylvania; Poplar Grove (Petersburg) National Cemetery, Virginia; Shiloh (Pittsburg Landing) National Cemetery, Tennessee; Stones River (Murfreesboro) National Cemetery, Tennessee; Vicksburg National Cemetery, Mississippi; and Yorktown National Cemetery, Virginia.

Most famous among them is Gettysburg National Cemetery, which, with Arlington, is one of the two most revered national cemeteries in the United States. The battle of Gettysburg was scarcely over when Gov. Andrew Y. Curtin of Pennsylvania hastened to the field to assist local residents in caring for the dead, dying, and other wounded. More than 6,000 soldiers had been killed in action, and among 21,000 wounded hundreds more died each day. Many were hastily interred in improvised graves on the battlefield. Curtin at once approved plans for a Soldiers’ National Cemetery and asked
Gettysburg attorney David Wills to purchase a plot in the name of Pennsylvania. Wills selected 17 acres and engaged William Saunders, an eminent horticulturist, to lay out the grounds. Fourteen northern states provided the necessary funds.

Saunders planned Gettysburg National Cemetery as we know it today, enclosed by massive stone walls, the ample lawns framed by trees and shrubs, the grave sites laid out in a great semicircle around the site for a proposed Soldiers’ National Monument. At the dedication on November 19, 1863, President Abraham Lincoln delivered his Gettysburg Address. Gettysburg National Cemetery became the property of the Nation on May 1, 1872, more than 20 years before the national military park there was authorized.

Similar events took place on the other great battlefields of the Civil War. Congress recognized the importance of honoring and caring for the remains of the Union war dead by passing general legislation in 1867 that provided for the extensive system of national cemeteries subsequently developed by the War Department. As at Gettysburg, each cemetery transferred to the Park Service in 1933 was carefully landscaped and enclosed with stone walls to achieve an effect of “simple grandeur,” and each preceded establishment of its associated battlefield park.

The act of 1867 also provided authority for preserving an important battleground of the Indian wars. On January 29, 1879, the Secretary of War established a national cemetery at the site of the Battle of the Little Bighorn in Montana Territory. It was proclaimed the National Cemetery of Custer’s Battlefield Reservation in 1886, transferred from the War Department to the National Park Service in 1940, and designated Custer Battlefield National Monument by act of Congress in 1946. Other national cemeteries acquired by the Service after the reorganization were Andrew Johnson National Cemetery, a component of the Andrew Johnson National Monument, Tennessee, authorized in 1935; Chalmette National Cemetery, transferred by the War Department for Chalmette National Historical Park in 1939; and Andersonville National Cemetery, part of Andersonville National Historic Site, Georgia, authorized in 1970.

Until 1975 the national cemeteries transferred in the reorganization were carried as separate units of the National Park System. Since that date the cemeteries, while retaining their special identities, have not been listed apart from their associated parks.

Other War Department Properties, 1910-1933

At the same time that national monuments were being established under Department of the Interior jurisdiction, monuments also were proclaimed for admin-
istration by the departments of War and Agriculture. Before the reorganization transferred them to the National Park Service, there were 10 national monuments on military reservations. Two other War Department areas originally had been designated “national parks.”

Abraham Lincoln National Park, the birthplace memorial and grounds, was donated to the Government and assigned by law to War Department administration. The other areas constituted a small sampling of the rich historic resources within United States military reservations. The first War Department national monument, Big Hole Battlefield, Montana, was set aside in 1910 to preserve the site of an 1877 battle between United States troops and Nez Perce Indians under Chief Joseph. Cabrillo National Monument commemorated the Portuguese navigator who passed along the Pacific coast in 1542. Mound City Group, Ohio, protected the site of 24 burial mounds of the prehistoric Hopewell Indians.

The next five monuments resulted from a single executive order by President Calvin Coolidge on October 15, 1924. Fort Marion National Monument, later retitled with its old Spanish name Castillo de San Marcos, recognized an ancient Spanish fort in St. Augustine, Florida, the oldest permanent European settlement in the continental United States. Another monument protected Fort Matanzas, constructed by the Spanish in 1742 to defend the southern approaches to St. Augustine. Fort Pulaski National Monument preserved a fine early-19th century brick fort at the mouth of the Savannah River. Occupied by Confederate forces at the outbreak of the Civil War, it yielded under bombardment by Federal rifled cannon in 1862. The Statue of Liberty, based on Fort Wood in New York Harbor, was made a national monument (to which Ellis Island was added in 1965). The small Castle Pinckney National Monument in Charleston Harbor was later abolished.

An act of Congress approved March 3, 1925, directed the Secretary of War “to begin the restoration of Fort McHenry ... to such a condition as would make it suitable for preservation permanently as a national park and perpetual national memorial shrine as the birthplace of the immortal 'Star-Spangled Banner.'” Abraham Lincoln and Fort McHenry national parks received more appropriate designations once under the National Park Service; the “national monument and historic shrine” label given the fort in 1939 remains unique.

The act of May 29, 1930, authorizing the George Washington Memorial Parkway directed that Fort Washington, a 19th century defense of the Nation's Capital across the Potomac from Mount Vernon, should be added to the parkway holdings when no longer needed for military purposes. This transfer to the Park Service took
place in 1940 and is not considered part of the 1933 reorganization. Fort Washington Park is now a unit of the National Park System.

Department of Agriculture Properties, 1907-1933  The Department of Agriculture had 21 national monuments on national forest lands before the reorganization. The first two national monuments under Agriculture were Lassen Peak and Cinder Cone, proclaimed within Lassen Peak National Forest, California, on May 6, 1907, to protect evidence of what was then the most recent volcanic activity in the United States. Nine years later these lands were transferred to Interior as the nucleus of Lassen Volcanic National Park.

Fourteen of Agriculture’s other monuments were also established to preserve “scientific objects.” Especially noteworthy was Grand Canyon National Monument, proclaimed January 11, 1908, by President Theodore Roosevelt on lands within Grand Canyon National Forest, Arizona, to impede commercial development there. The monument contained 818,560 acres, making it 13 times larger than any previous one. Roosevelt’s bold action was later sustained by the United States Supreme Court, confirming the precedent for other very large national monuments such as Katmai, Glacier Bay, and Death Valley. In 1919 Grand Canyon National Monument was transferred to the National Park Service to become part of Grand Canyon National Park. A second Grand Canyon National Monument, proclaimed in 1932 and assigned to the Park Service, was incorporated in the enlarged national park in 1975.

On March 2, 1909, two days before leaving office, Roosevelt proclaimed another large natural monument, Mount Olympus, within Olympic National Forest, Washington. Encompassing 615,000 acres, it was intended to protect the Olympic elk and important stands of Sitka spruce, western hemlock, Douglas-fir, and Alaska cedar. It formed the nucleus for Olympic National Park in 1938.

Among the other scientific national monuments were four caves: Jewel Cave, South Dakota; Oregon Caves, Oregon; Lehman Caves, Nevada; and Timpanogos Cave, Utah. In the National Park System they would join Carlsbad Caverns, Mammoth Cave, and Wind Cave national parks.

The first of only five archeological monuments in the group was Gila Cliff Dwellings, New Mexico, proclaimed November 16, 1907. It was followed by Tonto and Walnut Canyon in Arizona and then by Bandelier, New Mexico, established within the Santa Fe National Forest. The fifth was Old Kasaan National Monument, Alaska, abolished in 1955.

The 1933 reorganization transferred to the Park Service all Depart-
moment of Agriculture monuments other than those previously conveyed as monuments or incorporated in national parks. Just after the reorganization, on August 22, 1933, President Franklin D. Roosevelt proclaimed another national monument—Cedar Breaks, Utah—on national forest land and assigned it to the Park Service. He repeated himself on March 13, 1943, with Jackson Hole National Monument, Wyoming, formed principally from Grand Teton National Forest; it was partially incorporated in Grand Teton National Park in 1950.

A limited reversion to Agriculture Department administration of national monuments came on December 1, 1978, when President Jimmy Carter proclaimed the Admiralty Island and Misty Fjords national monuments within the Tongass National Forest, Alaska, and prescribed their management as units of the National Forest System. Their status was confirmed by the Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act of December 2, 1980. Another act approved August 26, 1982, established Mount St. Helens National Volcanic Monument at the site of the recent eruption in Gifford Pinchot National Forest, Washington, and also retained it under the U.S. Forest Service. Since 1975 the Forest Service has also administered Gila Cliff Dwellings under an agreement with the Park Service.

In summary, the impact of the 1933 reorganization was both immediate and long-lasting. Of the 334 areas in the System a half-century later, 53 arrived in whole or part at that single stroke. The new historical areas introduced a degree of diversity that had hitherto not existed. And with parks in all sections of the country, the system was now truly national.
Background to the Reorganization of 1933

National Capital Parks 1790-1933

1790
District of Columbia authorized

1791
L'Enfant Plan for Washington drawn up; 17 original reservations acquired

1849
Parks placed under the authority of the newly established Department of the Interior

1866
Ford's Theatre acquired

1867
Parks placed under authority of Chief Engineer, U.S. Army

1890
Rock Creek Park authorized

1896
House Where Lincoln Died acquired

1897
Potomac Park authorized

1925
Arlington House restoration authorized

1930
George Washington Memorial Parkway authorized

1933
National Capital Parks added to National Park System

National Memorials 1783-1933

1783
Aug. 7 Equestrian statue of George Washington authorized

1848
July 4 Washington Monument cornerstone laid

1876
Aug. 2 Washington Monument accepted by United States

1877
March 3 Statue of Liberty accepted by United States

1885
Feb. 21 Washington Monument dedicated

1897
April 27 Grant's Tomb dedicated
1911
Feb. 9 Lincoln Memorial authorized

1913
Oct. 14 Cabrillo NM proclaimed (also listed with War Dept. properties)

1916
July 17 Abraham Lincoln Birthplace memorial (Abraham Lincoln NP) accepted by United States (also listed with War Dept. properties)

1919
March 3 Perry’s Victory Memorial authorized

1922
May 30 Lincoln Memorial dedicated

1924
Oct. 15 Statue of Liberty NM proclaimed (also listed with War Dept. properties)

1925
March 3 Mount Rushmore NMem authorized

1927
March 2 Kill Devil Hill Monument NMem authorized (also listed with War Dept. properties)

1928
May 23 George Rogers Clark memorial authorized

1932
May 21 Theodore Roosevelt memorial authorized

National Military Parks 1781-1933

1781
Oct. 29 Yorktown Column authorized

1825
June 17 Bunker Hill Monument cornerstone laid

1880
June 7 Yorktown Column reauthorized

1890
Aug. 19 Chickamauga and Chattanooga NMP, Georgia and Tennessee

Aug. 30 Antietam NBS, Maryland (redesignated a NB 1978)

1894
Dec. 27 Shiloh NMP, Tennessee

1895
Feb. 11 Gettysburg NMP, Pennsylvania
1899
Feb. 21 Vicksburg NMP, Mississippi

1907
March 4 Chalmette Monument and Grounds, Louisiana (redesignated Chalmette NHP 1939; incorporated in Jean Lafitte NHP and Pres 1978)

1917
Feb. 8 Kennesaw Mountain NBS, Georgia (redesignated a NBP 1935)
March 2 Guilford Courthouse NMP, North Carolina

1926
June 2 Moores Creek NMP, North Carolina (redesignated a NB 1980)
July 3 Petersburg NMP, Virginia (redesignated a NB 1962)

1927
Feb. 14 Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial NMP, Virginia
March 3 Stones River NMP, Tennessee (redesignated a NB 1960)

1928
March 26 Fort Donelson NMP, Tennessee

1929
Feb. 21 Brices Cross Roads NBS, Mississippi
Feb. 21 Tupelo NBS, Mississippi (redesignated a NB 1961)
March 4 Cowpens NBS, South Carolina (redesignated a NB 1972)

1930
June 18 Appomattox Battlefield Site, Virginia (redesignated Appomattox Court House National Historical Monument 1935; redesignated Appomattox Court House NHP 1954)

1931
March 4 Fort Necessity NBS, Pennsylvania (redesignated a NB 1961)
March 4 Kings Mountain NMP, South Carolina

War Department National Monuments and Comparable Properties 1910-1933

1910
June 23 Big Hole Battlefield NM, Montana (redesignated Big Hole NB 1963)

1913
Oct. 14 Cabrillo NM, California (also listed with national memorials)

1916
July 17 Abraham Lincoln NP, Kentucky (redesignated a NHP 1939; redesignated Abraham Lincoln Birthplace NHS 1959; also listed with national memorials)
1923
March 2 Mound City Group NM, Ohio

1924
Oct. 15 Castle Pinckney NM, South Carolina (abolished 1956)
Oct. 15 Fort Marion NM, Florida (redesignated Castillo de San Marcos NM 1942)
Oct. 15 Fort Matanzas NM, Florida
Oct. 15 Fort Pulaski NM, Georgia
Oct. 15 Statue of Liberty NM, New York (also listed with national memorials)

1925
Feb. 6 Meriwether Lewis NM, Tennessee (incorporated in Natchez Trace Parkway 1961)
March 3 Fort McHenry NP, Maryland (redesignated Fort McHenry NM and Historic Shrine 1939)
Sept. 5 Father Millet Cross NM, New York (abolished 1949)

1927
March 2 Kill Devil Hill Monument NMem (redesignated Wright Brothers NMem 1953; also listed with national memorials)

1930
May 29 Fort Washington, Maryland (date transfer authorized; effective 1940)

_Agriculture Department National Monuments 1907-1933_

1907
May 6 Cinder Cone NM, California (incorporated in Lassen Volcanic NP 1916)
May 6 Lassen Peak NM, California (incorporated in Lassen Volcanic NP 1916)
Nov. 16 Gila Cliff Dwellings NM, New Mexico
Dec. 19 Tonto NM, Arizona

1908
Jan. 11 Grand Canyon NM, Arizona (incorporated in Grand Canyon NP 1919)
Jan. 16 Pinnacles NM, California (transferred to Interior 1910)
Feb. 7 Jewel Cave NM, South Dakota
Dec. 7 Wheeler NM, Colorado (abolished 1950)

1909
March 2 Mount Olympus NM, Washington (incorporated in Olympic
NP 1938)
July 12 Oregon Caves NM, Oregon

1911
July 6 Devils Postpile NM, California

1915
Nov. 30 Walnut Canyon NM, Arizona

1916
Feb. 11 Bandelier NM, New Mexico (transferred to Interior 1932)
Oct. 25 Old Kasaan NM, Alaska (abolished 1955)

1922
Jan. 24 Lehman Caves NM, Nevada
Oct. 14 Timpanogos Cave NM, Utah

1923
June 8 Bryce Canyon NM, Utah (incorporated in Bryce Canyon NP 1928)

1924
April 18 Chiricahua NM, Arizona

1929
May 11 Holy Cross NM, Colorado (abolished 1950)

1930
May 26 Sunset Crater NM, Arizona

1933
March 1 Saguaro NM, Arizona

Present-day NPS Areas from the Reorganization of 1933
Abraham Lincoln Birthplace NHS, Kentucky
Antietam NB, Maryland
Appomattox Court House NHP, Virginia
Arlington House, The Robert E. Lee Memorial, Virginia
Big Hole NB, Montana
Brices Cross Roads NBS, Mississippi
Cabrillo NM, California
Castillo de San Marcos NM, Florida
Chickamauga and Chattanooga NMP, Georgia and Tennessee
Chiricahua NM, Arizona
Colonial NHP, Virginia—Yorktown National Cemetery
Cowpens NB, South Carolina
Devils Postpile NM, California
Ford’s Theatre NHS, District of Columbia
Fort Donelson NMP, Tennessee
Fort McHenry NM and Historic Shrine, Maryland
Fort Matanzas NM, Florida
Fort Necessity NB, Pennsylvania
Fort Pulaski NM, Georgia
Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial NMP, Virginia
George Washington Memorial Parkway, Virginia and Maryland
Gettysburg NMP, Pennsylvania
Gila Cliff Dwellings NM, New Mexico
Guilford Courthouse NMP, North Carolina
Jean Lafitte NHP and Preserve, Louisiana—Chalmette Unit
Jewel Cave NM, South Dakota
Kennesaw Mountain NBP, Georgia
Kings Mountain NMP, South Carolina
Lehman Caves NM, Nevada
Lincoln Memorial, District of Columbia
Moores Creek NB, North Carolina
Mound City Group NM, Ohio
Natchez Trace Parkway, Mississippi—Meriwether Lewis Park
National Capital Parks, District of Columbia and Maryland
National Mall, District of Columbia
Olympic NP, Washington—Mount Olympus NM portion
Oregon Caves NM, Oregon
Petersburg NB, Virginia
Rock Creek Park, District of Columbia
Saguaro NM, Arizona
Shiloh NMP, Tennessee
Statue of Liberty NM, New York and New Jersey
Stones River NB, Tennessee
Sunset Crater NM, Arizona
Theodore Roosevelt Island, District of Columbia
Timpanogos Cave NM, Utah
Tonto NM, Arizona
Tupelo NB, Mississippi
Vicksburg NMP, Mississippi
Walnut Canyon NM, Arizona
Washington Monument, District of Columbia
White House, District of Columbia
Wright Brothers NMem, North Carolina
From the Depression to Mission 66, 1933 to 1963

The long period from 1933 through 1963, which began with the need to assimilate the diverse areas acquired in the reorganization into the National Park System, was crowded with important events for the Nation and the System. The early years were marked by the great social and economic changes in American life that accompanied the New Deal. Among many other measures in 1933, President Franklin D. Roosevelt instituted a broad program of natural resource conservation implemented in part through the new Civilian Conservation Corps. At the program's peak in 1935 the Service was allotted 600 CCC camps, 118 of them in National Park System areas and 482 in state parks, employing approximately 120,000 enrollees and 6,000 professionally trained supervisors, including landscape architects, engineers, foresters, biologists, historians, architects, and archeologists.

The effects of the CCC and other economic recovery programs on Service management, planning, development, and staffing were profound. But within a few years came Pearl Harbor, and the Nation turned sharply from domestic programs to total mobilization for World War II. Not only were the CCC and other emergency programs dismantled, but regular appropriations for managing the System were cut from $21 million in 1940 to $5 million in 1943, the number of full-time employees was slashed from 3,510 to 1,974, and visits fell from 21 million in 1941 to 6 million in 1942. There was only a brief period after 1945 before military needs again became dominant with the outbreak of the Korean conflict.

During these years the integrity of the System required constant defense against wartime pressures for resource utilization. When peace came, new pressures were felt from a tremendous increase in travel as personal incomes, leisure time, and mobility rose for growing numbers of people. Visits to the national parklands mounted from the 6 million of 1942 to 33 million in 1950 and 72 million in 1960.

These and other changing conditions, including a great and growing backlog of deferred park maintenance and development projects, posed new problems for the Service and the System. The major response was Mission 66, a 10-year rehabilitation and capital development program begun by Director Conrad L. Wirth in 1956 to improve facilities, staffing, and resource preservation at all areas in
time for the 50th anniversary of the Service. Other important developments during the last years of the period were formation of the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission to address a perceived national “crisis in outdoor recreation,” subsequent establishment of a Bureau of Outdoor Recreation in the Interior Department, and mounting national concern for better protection of America’s diminishing wilderness.

Throughout these years the System continued to grow. Between August 10, 1933 (the effective date of the reorganization), and the end of 1963, 93 of the 334 units within the System in 1984 were authorized, proclaimed, designated, or otherwise added to the rolls. These numerous and diverse areas were acquired under the leadership of four directors: Arno B. Cammerer, 1933-1940; Newton B. Drury, 1940-1951; Arthur E. Demaray, 1951 (who served 17 years as associate director to his two predecessors); and Conrad Wirth, 1951-1964. They were supported by successive secretaries of the Interior and worked closely with many members of Congress.

Of the permanent additions, 14 were natural, 13 were recreational, and 66 were historical, marking a significant alteration in the System’s composition.

**Natural Areas**  In the first category, three entirely new national parks, one national memorial park later redesignated a national park, and seven national monuments protecting natural features were added to the System between August 1933 and the end of 1963; and four essentially new national parks were formed or expanded from preexisting holdings.

During his first seven years in office President Franklin D. Roosevelt routinely proclaimed five scientific national monuments—three of them very large. Cedar Breaks protected a remarkable natural amphitheater of eroded limestone and sandstone in southwestern Utah; Joshua Tree preserved a characteristic part—initially 825,340 acres—of the Mojave and Colorado deserts in southern California; Organ Pipe Cactus incorporated 325,000 acres of the Sonoran Desert in southern Arizona; Capitol Reef preserved a 20-mile segment of the great Waterpocket Fold in south-central Utah; and Channel Islands
protected Santa Barbara and Anacapa islands, the two smallest in a group of eight off the coast of southern California. Roosevelt's sixth scientific monument, however, was another story.

Jackson Hole, Wyoming, had been discussed as a possible addition to Yellowstone as early as 1892, and from 1916 onward the Park Service and Interior Department had actively sought its inclusion in the National Park System. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., visited the area in 1926 with Horace Albright, then superintendent of Yellowstone, and was distressed by the presence of unsightly commercial development on private lands despoiling the view of the Teton Range. With official encouragement, he began an undercover land acquisition program. In a few years his Snake River Land Company purchased more than 33,000 acres that he offered as a gift to the United States.

When Rockefeller's involvement and intent became public, bitter opposition developed among cattlemen, dude ranchers, packers, hunters, timber interests, and local Forest Service officials who preferred livestock ranches and forest crops to a national park, county officials who feared loss of tax revenues, and politically sensitive state leaders. Responding to the opposition, Wyoming's congressional delegation thwarted passage of park enabling legislation. In 1943, after Rockefeller expressed impatience with holding and paying taxes on his acquisition, Roosevelt proclaimed the Jackson Hole National Monument, consolidating Rockefeller's donated land and 179,000 acres withdrawn from Teton National Forest into a single area adjoining the limited Grand Teton National Park established in 1929.

Roosevelt's proclamation unleashed a storm of criticism that had been brewing for years about such executive actions. Rep. Frank A. Barrett of Wyoming and others introduced bills to abolish the monument and repeal the proclamation authority in the Antiquities Act. Legislation abolishing the monument passed Congress in 1944 but was vetoed by Roosevelt, who observed that Presidents of both parties beginning with Theodore Roosevelt had preceded Jackson Hole with 82 other national monuments, 7 of them larger ones. The monument proclamation was also contested unsuccessfully in court. A compromise was finally worked out and embodied in legislation approved by President Harry S Truman in 1950. It combined most of Jackson Hole National Monument and the old Grand Teton National Park in a new Grand Teton National Park of some 298,000 acres with special provisions for tax revenue compensation and hunting. It also prohibited establishing or enlarging national parks and monuments in Wyoming thereafter except by congressional authorization.

After this bitter and protracted controversy, presidential proclamation of large scientific national monuments virtually ceased out-
side Wyoming as well. In the 35 years after Jackson Hole was proclaimed, only two more natural monuments were so established: Buck Island Reef in the Virgin Islands, containing only 850 acres, ordered by President John F. Kennedy in 1961; and Marble Canyon, Arizona, with 25,962 acres, proclaimed by President Lyndon B. Johnson on his last day in office in 1969. (Johnson declined to approve a proposed Gates of the Arctic National Monument in Alaska containing 4,119,000 acres, a Mount McKinley National Monument of 2,202,000 acres adjoining the national park, and a Sonoran Desert National Monument containing 911,700 acres in Arizona.) By its ability to withhold appropriations from areas not of its making, Congress largely nullified such use of the Antiquities Act. The major exception was President Jimmy Carter's proclamation of 11 Alaska monuments for the National Park System in 1978 after Congress adjourned without approving related park legislation—a very special case.

The Jackson Hole controversy was accompanied by mounting pressure from various interests, especially in the West, to open up protected natural resources in the System for use during periods of national emergency. During World War II timber interests sought permission to log scarce Sitka spruce in Olympic National Park for airplane manufacture. Livestock interests pressed to reopen many areas for grazing. Mining companies wanted to search for copper in Grand Canyon and Mount Rainier, manganese in Shenandoah, and tungsten in Yosemite. The military services requested use of park lands for various purposes. In 1942 and 1943 the Service issued 528 permits to the War and Navy departments for such activities as mountain warfare training at Mount Rainier, desert training at Joshua Tree, and equipment testing in Arctic conditions at Mount McKinley. Director Drury, supported by Secretary of the Interior Harold L. Ickes, successfully defended the basic integrity of the System in the face of these exceptional pressures, permitting as a last resort only those uses essential to prosecution of the war for which other sites were unavailable.

With the end of World War II a new round of threats to the System accompanied the accelerated development of river basins by the Corps of Engineers and the Bureau of Reclamation. The proposed Bridge Canyon Dam on the Colorado River would have created a reservoir through all of Grand Canyon National Monument and 18 miles of the adjacent national park; Glacier View Dam on the Flathead River in Montana threatened to flood 20,000 acres of Glacier National Park; Echo Park and Split Mountain dams on the Green and Yampa rivers were expected to inundate long stretches of wilderness canyons in Dinosaur National Monument; and the reser-
voir behind the proposed Mining City Dam on Kentucky's Green River would have periodically flooded the underground Echo River in Mammoth Cave National Park. Such proposals recalled the single greatest disaster previously to befall an established national park: the damming of Yosemite's Hetch Hetchy Valley for a reservoir serving San Francisco. In the face of strong opposition and national controversy, conservation organizations and the Service—generally though not always working together—managed to meet these and similar threats and bring the System through the period relatively unscathed.

The increased pressures for natural resource use and the decreased pool of available lands with national park potential contributed to the limited increase of natural areas from 1933 through 1963. As noted, only three entirely new national parks were established during these 30 years. Everglades in Florida was authorized in 1934 to protect the largest tropical wilderness in the United States; it was the only national park in the far southeastern states until 1980 and remains the only one of its kind. Big Bend was authorized a year later to encompass more than 700,000 acres of unique wilderness country in southwestern Texas, including the Chisos Mountains and three magnificent canyons in the great bend of the Rio Grande. Virgin Islands National Park was authorized in 1956 to protect nearly two-thirds of the land mass and most of the colorful offshore waters of St. John Island. The park owes its existence to the financial support of Jackson Hole Preserve, Inc., and Laurence S. Rockefeller. A fourth new area, Theodore Roosevelt National Memorial Park, was established in 1947 and redesignated a national park in 1978. It includes scenic badlands along the Little Missouri River and part of Roosevelt's Elkhorn Ranch in North Dakota.

Although incorporating or deriving from existing holdings, three other national parks, besides Grand Teton, were essentially new by virtue of major land additions or other factors. Olympic National Park, formed around the nucleus of Mount Olympus National Monument, was established in 1938 over the bitter opposition of timber companies after an ardent campaign by conservationists, strongly supported by Secretary Ickes and President Roosevelt. After a 50-year struggle with power and irrigation interests, lumbermen, ranchers, and hunters, Kings Canyon National Park—incorporating the General Grant National Park dating from 1890—was finally established in 1940 to protect some 460,136 acres of outstanding mountain and canyon wilderness on the west slope of the Sierra Nevada. Finally, the famous crater of 10,023-foot Haleakala on the island of Maui was taken from Hawaii National Park in 1960 and placed in a separate Haleakala National Park.
Four previously authorized national parks were formally established during the period after sufficient lands were acquired from nonfederal sources: Great Smoky Mountains in 1934, Shenandoah in 1935, Isle Royale in 1940, and Mammoth Cave in 1941. And President Roosevelt ordered significant additions to several existing national monuments before the Jackson Hole proclamation controversy forced an effective moratorium on such actions. Death Valley was expanded by nearly 306,000 acres in 1937; 203,885 acres containing the spectacular wild canyons of the Yampa and Green rivers were added to Dinosaur in 1938; Glacier Bay received an additional 905,000 acres for wildlife and glacier protection in 1939; and 150,000 acres were added to Badlands that year.

Partly because of the increasing difficulty of adding new natural areas to the National Park System, the Service launched a Registered Natural Landmarks Program in 1962 to recognize and encourage the preservation of nationally significant natural lands outside the System. In 1964 Secretary of the Interior Stewart L. Udall announced the first seven areas found eligible for natural landmark registry: Mianus River Gorge and Bergen Swamp, New York; Corkscrew Swamp Sanctuary, Florida; Elder Creek and Rancho La Brea-Hancock Park, California; Fontenelle Forest, Nebraska; and Wissahickon Valley, Pennsylvania. Another means was thus found to help strengthen environmental conservation in the United States.

**Historical Areas**

In contrast to the relatively few new natural areas, 71 more historical (including prehistoric) areas came to the National Park System between 1933 and 1963. Three ultimately were incorporated in other units and two were removed from the System, leaving 66 remaining today from the period. This remarkable increase in the System's historical areas, coming on top of the many acquired in the 1933 reorganization, was spurred by another landmark legislative enactment—the Historic Sites Act of 1935.

In November 1933 President Roosevelt invited his Washington neighbor, Gist Blair of Blair House, to consider "some kind of plan which would coordinate the broad relationship of the Federal government to State and local interest in the maintenance of historic sources and places throughout the country. I am struck with the fact that there is no definite, broad policy in this matter." Roosevelt advised Blair to visit the Interior Department and discuss the possible need for legislation. Through the efforts of many persons—including Blair and his associates in the Society of Colonial Wars, W.A.R. Goodwin of Williamsburg, Secretary Ickes, Assistant Interior Solicitor Rufus G. Poole, Director Arno Cammerer, NPS Chief Historian
Verne E. Chatelain, Sen. Harry F. Byrd, Sr., of Virginia, and Rep. Maury Maverick of Texas—a bill was drafted, amended and passed by Congress, and signed by the President on August 21, 1935.

The Historic Sites Act established "a national policy to preserve for public use historic sites, buildings and objects of national significance for the inspiration and benefit of the people of the United States." To carry out this policy, the act assigned broad powers and duties to the Secretary of the Interior and the National Park Service. They were to survey historic properties "for the purpose of determining which possess exceptional value as commemorating or illustrating the history of the United States." They were authorized to conduct research; to restore, preserve, and maintain historic properties directly or through cooperative agreements with other parties; and to mark properties, establish and maintain related museums, and engage in other interpretive activities for public education. And there was a general authorization for acquiring historic properties—provided that no Federal funds were obligated in advance of congressional appropriations.

The restrictive provision, from a House amendment to the draft bill prepared by Interior, effectively curtailed the envisioned addition of properties to the National Park System by secretarial action alone. The Secretary could and did designate "national historic sites" outside the System and accept donation of such properties, but unless and until Congress provided funds for acquiring sites not donated and for administering those that were, the Service could offer little more than moral support. Several additions during the period, including Jefferson National Expansion Memorial, Missouri; Salem Maritime, Massachusetts; Federal Hall and Vanderbilt Mansion, New York; Hampton, Maryland; and Golden Spike, Utah; were initially made national historic sites by secretarial designation under the Historic Sites Act and were later brought into the System by congressional authorization.

Although the act was of limited value by itself in enlarging the System, its provision for a historic site survey—institutionalized within the Service as the National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings—proved effective in identifying potential additions. Another product of the act, the Secretary's Advisory Board on National Parks, Historic Sites, Buildings, and Monuments (now the National Park System Advisory Board), used outside experts in the cultural and natural resource disciplines to review selected properties and to recommend those found nationally significant for secretarial designation or inclusion in the System.

A small number of national historic sites resulting from secretarial
designations were never brought under Service administration and are now classed as "affiliated areas" of the System. Beginning in 1960, most outside properties surveyed and found nationally significant were named "national historic landmarks," the historic site designation having become closely identified with Service control. The National Historic Landmarks Program, like the Registered Natural Landmarks Program that it inspired, became an important Service tool for recognizing and encouraging preservation of outstanding properties regardless of ownership. And it continued the valuable function of identifying those few most important areas that might then or later warrant inclusion in the System. From Secretary of the Interior Fred A. Seaton's initial announcement of 92 historic sites and buildings eligible for landmark designation in 1960, the landmark list had grown to more than 1,600 properties by 1984.

The volume of historical additions to the System from 1933 to 1963 will allow mention here of significant examples only. The first national historic site, so designated by Secretary Ickes four months after the Historic Sites Act, was Jefferson National Expansion Memorial National Historic Site in St. Louis. Occupying 37 city blocks on the Mississippi riverfront, it was also the first major urban responsibility of the Park Service outside the National Capital Parks. The historic site designation in this atypical instance was a means of providing Federal funds for urban renewal and a modern memorial to western expansion. Most of the area was cleared, and the soaring Gateway Arch designed by Eero Saarinen was constructed as its centerpiece in the 1960s.

In 1948, responding to recommendations of a study commission, Congress authorized another major historical project in an urban setting—Independence National Historical Park in Philadelphia. One of the most important historic districts in the United States, the park encompasses Independence Hall, Congress Hall, Carpenters Hall, and other sites and buildings intimately associated with the winning of American independence and the establishment of government under the Constitution. In 1959 it was enlarged by incorporation of the old Philadelphia Custom House (Second Bank of the United States), which had been designated a national historic site 20 years before. A commission also was established for New York City, where Federal Hall, Castle Clinton, the General Grant Memorial, Hamilton Grange, Theodore Roosevelt Birthplace, and the outlying Sagamore Hill joined the Statue of Liberty under Service administration. In the Boston area, Minute Man National Historical Park was authorized in 1959 to include sites of the opening engagements of the American Revolution.
Eight Presidents of the United States were honored by additions during the period, furthering a trend that would ultimately number presidential sites second only to battlefields in the historical ranks of the System. The Thomas Jefferson Memorial in Washington was authorized in 1934 and completed nine years later. Andrew Johnson’s home and tailor shop in Greeneville, Tennessee, were acquired in 1935. Franklin D. Roosevelt’s Hyde Park estate was designated a national historic site in 1944 and donated after his death a year later. The home of John Adams and his son John Quincy in Quincy, Massachusetts, followed in 1946. Theodore Roosevelt National Memorial Park, North Dakota, was established in 1947; although containing part of Roosevelt’s ranch, it was predominantly natural rather than historical and was relabeled a national park in 1978. Two other Theodore Roosevelt sites, his birthplace in Manhattan and Sagamore Hill at Oyster Bay, New York, were given to the United States in 1962. Ulysses S. Grant’s tomb came into the System as General Grant National Memorial in 1959 and another Abraham Lincoln site, Lincoln Boyhood National Memorial, was accepted from the State of Indiana in 1962.

The first new battlefield park to be authorized was Monocacy, scene of a Civil War engagement in Maryland; but the lands were not donated as expected, and the site remained outside the System until Congress reauthorized its acquisition with appropriated funds in 1976. Other Civil War battlefield additions were more readily achieved: Richmond, Virginia, authorized in 1936; Manassas, Virginia, in 1940; Pea Ridge, Arkansas, in 1956; and Wilson’s Creek, Missouri, in 1960. Saratoga National Historical Park, New York, was authorized in 1938 to commemorate a decisive Revolutionary War battle. Two more new units treated military-Indian engagements: the National Cemetery of Custer’s Battlefield Reservation, Montana, was transferred from the War Department in 1940 and redesignated Custer Battlefield National Monument in 1946; and Horseshoe Bend National Military Park, Alabama, was authorized in 1956 to preserve the site of General Andrew Jackson’s 1814 defeat of the Creeks.

And there were more forts. Fort Jefferson, Florida, the largest all-masonry fortification in the western hemisphere, was proclaimed a national monument in 1935. Congress authorized Fort Stanwix National Monument, New York, the same year, but the Service did not acquire the site on which it later reconstructed the colonial and Revolutionary War fort until 1973. Fort Sumter at Charleston, South Carolina, was transferred to the Park Service in 1948 when that famous Civil War landmark was no longer needed for military purposes. Beginning in 1938 with Fort Laramie, Wyoming, a new
array of historic western military and fur-trading posts joined the
System, including Fort Vancouver, Washington, in 1948; Fort Union,
New Mexico, in 1954; Bent's Old Fort, Colorado, in 1960; Fort Davis,
Texas, in 1961; and Fort Smith, Arkansas, in 1961.

Although sites representing political and military history pre­
dominated, a few more areas addressing other themes were admitted
during the period. Several were significant in commerce, industry,
transportation, or other aspects of economic history. Salem Mar­
time National Historic Site, Massachusetts, preserves remnants of a
seaport important during the colonial and early national eras. Hope­
well Village was an early Pennsylvania ironmaking community. The
Chesapeake and Ohio Canal in the District of Columbia and Mary­
land—acquired by the Service in 1938, proclaimed a national monu­
ment by President Dwight D. Eisenhower in 1961, and authorized for
major expansion as a national historical park by Congress a decade
later—is as important to hikers and cyclists as it is to history buffs.
Harpers Ferry, West Virginia, noted for the 1859 John Brown Raid
and Civil War activity, is also highly significant in the history of
manufacturing. Edison National Historic Site, formed in 1962 from
the previously designated Edison Home National Historic Site and
Edison Laboratory National Monument, comprises the master inven­
tor's last laboratory and residence. Another landmark transportation
site, where the first transcontinental railroad was joined in 1869,
became Golden Spike National Historic Site by secretarial designa­
tion in 1957; Congress later authorized its addition to the System.

Three other acquisitions commemorated the lives and contribu­
tions of noted black Americans. George Washington Carver National
Monument, at the scientist-teacher's Missouri birthplace, was author­
ized by Congress just after his death in 1943. Booker T. Washington,
who headed Tuskegee Institute where Carver taught, was similarly
honored at his Virginia birthplace in 1956. And the Washington,
D.C., home of Frederick Douglass, the leading black spokesman of
the 19th century, was taken into the System in 1962.

Recreational Areas Toward the latter part of this period the
Service had to deal increasingly with a new group of areas that for a
time were legally excluded from the National Park System. A 1953
act of Congress defined the System as comprising "all federally
owned or controlled lands which are administered under the direc­
tion of the Secretary of the Interior in accordance with the provisions
of the Act of August 25, 1916 . . . , and which are grouped into the
following descriptive categories: (1) National parks, (2) national
monuments, (3) national historical parks |interpreted to include


national historic sites and battlefields], (4) national memorials, (5) national parkways, and (6) national capital parks.” Omitted from this official definition of the System were reservoir-based areas and others, administered in whole or part by the National Park Service, that did not fall into the named categories. These “miscellaneous areas,” as the act termed them, and the national parkways came to be classified as recreational areas.

Less definitive than the natural and historical area categories, the recreational area classification was an administrative convenience for units that did not readily fit the others. Their natural resources often did not meet the standards of national significance expected of the national parks and monuments. Many were centered on artificial lakes or were intended to be developed and used for mass public recreation rather than having resource preservation as their paramount purpose. And they often permitted hunting or other activities traditionally barred from the parks. Although most such areas were legally excluded from the System in 1953, a 1970 amendment redefined the System to encompass all areas administered by the Service “for park, monument, historic, parkway, recreational, or other purposes.”

Between 1933 and 1963 the Service acquired responsibility for 16 units that would be classed as recreational areas, 13 of which remain as discrete components of the System today.

Service involvement with recreational areas stemmed in major part from widened responsibilities outside the System assigned the bureau during the Depression. Included was administration of several hundred Civilian Conservation Corps camps in state parks. The Service had actively encouraged the state park movement ever since Stephen T. Mather helped organize the National Conference on State Parks in 1921, so it was logical for it to assume national direction of Emergency Conservation Work in those parks when that program was launched in 1933. The program was led by Assistant Director Conrad L. Wirth, later director.

Most states lacked any park system plans, leading the Service to advocate comprehensive new planning legislation. The resulting Park, Parkway, and Recreation Area Study Act of 1936 enabled the Service, working with others, to plan coordinated and adequate parklands and facilities at Federal, state, and local levels throughout the country. In 1941 the bureau published its first comprehensive report under the act, A Study of the Park and Recreation Problem in the United States. Interrupted by World War II, these planning studies resumed with the inception of Mission 66, and a second comprehensive report appeared in 1964 titled Parks for America: A
Survey of Park and Related Resources in the Fifty States and a Preliminary Plan. Numerous land planning studies of individual areas, river basins, and regions accompanied and supported these reports.

The recommendations in these studies were used as guidelines for the Service as well, and the new recreational areas for which the Service assumed responsibility during the period were generally consistent with these aims.

One of the new types of area was the parkway, a carefully designed and landscaped limited access road, buffered by parkland, intended for recreational motoring rather than high-speed travel. Automobile parkways originated with those built in Westchester County, New York, between 1913 and 1930. Congress had authorized the first Federal parkway project in 1913, the four-mile Rock Creek and Potomac Parkway connecting Potomac Park with Rock Creek Park and the National Zoological Park in the District of Columbia. The road was not built until later, however, and the small parkway was and is counted as a component of National Capital Parks rather than a full-fledged unit of the National Park System.

In 1928 Congress authorized what became the first parkway area of the System: the Mount Vernon Memorial Highway linking the District of Columbia with Mount Vernon, to be completed for the bicentennial of George Washington's birth in 1932. Retitled George Washington Memorial Parkway in 1930, the project was enlarged to encompass both sides of the Potomac upriver to Great Falls, but it has never been completed as envisioned. As noted in the preceding chapter, the parkway was transferred to the National Park Service in the 1933 reorganization. During World War II the national capital parkway network was expanded with the authorization of Suitland Parkway, a landscaped access road to Andrews Air Force Base, and the Baltimore-Washington Parkway, whose initial unit provided access to Fort George G. Meade. These roads were included in the System after the war, but since 1975 they have been classed as elements of National Capital Parks rather than separate units.

Colonial Parkway in Virginia was the first authorized by Congress outside the Washington, D.C., vicinity. It provided a 23-mile scenic drive between the Jamestown and Yorktown ends of Colonial National Monument (later Colonial National Historical Park), authorized in 1930. It too lacks separate area status, being treated as a component of its associated park.

A new era for national parkways began with authorization of the Blue Ridge and Natchez Trace parkways in 1933 and 1934. These were not parkways serving primarily local traffic but protected
recreational roadways traversing great stretches of scenic and historic rural landscape. Begun as public works projects during the New Deal, they were soon made units of the National Park System.

The Skyline Drive in Shenandoah National Park was the prototype for the Blue Ridge Parkway. President Herbert Hoover, whose vacation camp on the headwaters of the Rapidan River was donated to the park, personally promoted the spectacular Shenandoah roadway. It was planned in 1931 and begun as a relief project in 1932.

After Franklin Roosevelt's inauguration Congress quickly passed the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 to stimulate the economy. Among other provisions it authorized the Public Works Administrator, Secretary Ickes, to prepare a comprehensive program of public works including the construction and improvement of roads. Sen. Harry F. Byrd, Sr., aided by others, seized the opportunity to propose a scenic parkway linking Shenandoah and Great Smoky Mountains national parks. Roosevelt and Ickes embraced the proposal, Virginia and North Carolina agreed to donate the rights-of-way, and that December the Service received an initial $4 million allotment for the project. Jointly planned by the Service and the Bureau of Public Roads, it was named the Blue Ridge Parkway and legally added to the System in 1936.

The Blue Ridge Parkway is widely considered a triumph in parkway design, providing motorists with a serene environment for leisurely travel through the beauty of the southern highlands. The 469-mile road alternates sweeping views of mountain and valley with intimate glimpses of Appalachian flora and fauna and preserved and reconstructed log structures of the mountain people. Nearly completed by 1963, the parkway was and is the best known and most heavily used recreational area added to the System during the period.

The second major national parkway was projected to follow the general route of the historic Natchez Trace from Nashville, Tennessee, to Natchez, Mississippi. During the early 19th century the Indian trace became a major trail binding the Old Southwest to the rest of the country. In 1934 Congress authorized a survey for the purpose of constructing a Natchez Trace Parkway along the route. The Service assumed responsibility for construction and administration in 1938. By 1963 about half the planned 449 miles of roadway was in place. Today, fewer than 84 miles remain unbuilt. Features linked by the completed portions include Mount Locust, the earliest surviving inn on the trace, and Emerald Mound, one of the largest prehistoric ceremonial structures in the United States.

Proposals for other parkways proliferated during the 1930s and many were revived after World War II. Among those advanced and
studied were extensions of the Blue Ridge Parkway northeast to Maine and southwest to Georgia; extensions of the George Washington Memorial Parkway northwest along the length of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal and southeast to Wakefield (Washington's birthplace) and Williamsburg; a Washington-to-Gettysburg parkway; a Mississippi River parkway; and an Oglethorpe National Trail and Parkway from Augusta to Savannah, Georgia.

As late as 1964 the Recreation Advisory Council recommended a national program of scenic roads and parkways, and the Commerce Department proposed $4 billion for their construction between 1966 and 1976. The Vietnam War intervened, but there was also growing opposition to parkways on their merits. The Wilderness Society had been organized in 1935 partly to protest such ridgecrest roadways as the Skyline Drive and Blue Ridge Parkway, which its members viewed as intolerable intrusions on the natural environment. Only a small voice in 1935, the society grew to become the most influential citizen force behind the Wilderness Act of 1964 that, among other purposes, was intended to keep wilderness roadless. Perhaps the most memorable anti-parkway campaign was led by William O. Douglas, Supreme Court justice and wilderness advocate who led the fight against the proposal in 1954 to turn the C&O Canal into a four-lane highway. Such stands by conservationists combined with economic considerations virtually halted new parkway construction by the mid-1960s.

Besides the Blue Ridge Parkway, two other units of today's National Park System trace their origins to the National Industrial Recovery Act, although we date them from their transfer to the Service in 1936: Catoctin Mountain Park, Maryland, and Prince William Forest Park, Virginia.

The act authorized Federal purchase of lands considered submarginal for farming but suitable for recreation. After acquisition by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, they were transferred to the Resettlement Administration and then to the National Park Service as recreation demonstration projects. By 1936, 46 projects incorporating 397,000 acres had been set up in 24 states, many near metropolitan areas. From the beginning it was intended that most projects would be turned over to states and cities for operation, and in 1942 Congress provided the necessary authority. By 1946 most of the conveyances had been completed, but the Service retained portions of several areas. In most cases the retained lands were added to existing units of the System, such as Acadia, Shenandoah, White Sands, and Hopewell Village, but the Catoctin and Chopawamsic recreation demonstration areas kept their individual identities. Chopawamsic was retitled Prince William Forest Park in 1948; the retained
part of Catoctin, surrounding the presidential retreat Shangri-La (now Camp David), became Catoctin Mountain Park in 1954.

As has been noted, fierce conservation battles were fought during the period against dam proposals that threatened to inundate unspooled canyons in and near certain national parks and monuments. There was some displeasure, then, when the Service joined forces with the dam builders to administer recreational developments and activities at major impoundments.

Lake Mead in Nevada and Arizona was the first of these involvements and the first unit of the System bearing the "national recreation area" designation. The Boulder Canyon Project Act of 1928 authorized the Bureau of Reclamation to construct Hoover Dam on the Colorado River. Work began in 1931 and the dam, highest in the western hemisphere, was completed in 1935. The next year, under provisions of an agreement with Reclamation, the Service assumed responsibility for all recreational activities at what was initially designated Boulder Dam National Recreation Area.

The responsibility became a major one, for Lake Mead at capacity is 115 miles long with 550 miles of shoreline. The Service developed numerous facilities for camping, boating, and swimming. By 1952 Davis Dam had been built downstream, impounding the 67-mile-long Lake Mohave, and the Service assumed similar functions there. The total Lake Mead National Recreation Area, as it was retitled in 1947, covers both lakes and surrounding lands totaling nearly 1,500,000 acres. It is the largest area of its designation in the System today.

The second such unit, Coulee Dam National Recreation Area in Washington, was established in 1946 under an agreement with the Bureau of Reclamation patterned after that for Lake Mead. Franklin D. Roosevelt Lake, impounded by the Grand Coulee Dam built between 1933 and 1941, is 151 miles long with a shoreline of 660 miles. The Service developed campgrounds, marinas, bathing facilities, and other amenities at 35 locations around the lake. Two other areas still in the System benefited from similar Service involvement during the period: Glen Canyon National Recreation Area in Arizona and Utah beginning in 1958 and Whiskeytown-Shasta-Trinity National Recreation Area, California, in 1962.

The National Park Service made its first seashore recreation survey in 1934. It resulted in recommendations that 12 major stretches of unspoiled Atlantic and Gulf Coast shoreline be preserved as national areas. Twenty years later only one had been acquired—Cape Hatteras National Seashore, North Carolina. Most of the others had been invaded by commercial and residential development. Seashore studies were resumed in the mid-1950s with the generous support of the
Mellon family foundations. They yielded several reports including *Our Vanishing Shoreline* (1955), *A Report on the Seashore Recreation Survey of the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts* (1955), *Our Fourth Shore: Great Lakes Shoreline Recreation Area Survey* (1959), and *Pacific Coast Recreation Area Survey* (1959). Detailed studies of individual projects also were prepared as part of the Service's continuing efforts for shoreline conservation. By 1963 the fruits of this program included three more national seashores on the Atlantic, Gulf, and Pacific coasts.

The first national seashore, Cape Hatteras, was authorized by Congress in 1937 but land acquisition lagged until after World War II. Then the Mellon foundations made substantial grants which, matched by the State of North Carolina, enabled purchase of the needed lands. The seashore encompasses almost 100 miles of barrier islands and beaches, providing an outstanding natural resource base for surf bathing, sport fishing, bird watching, nature study, and other active and passive recreational activities.

Cape Cod National Seashore, authorized in 1961, protects the dunes and marshes of Cape Cod's outer arm along a 40-mile strip. It was the first large natural or recreational area for which Congress at the outset permitted the use of appropriated funds for land acquisition. Another novel provision of the Cape Cod legislation prevented the Secretary of the Interior from exercising the power of eminent domain to acquire private improved property once local jurisdictions had adopted and enforced zoning regulations meeting his approval. This arrangement forestalled serious conflicts between the Government and local communities and helped stabilize the landscape without forced resettlement of numerous families. It was an important precedent for legislation authorizing other such additions to the System.

Point Reyes and Padre Island national seashores followed two weeks apart in 1962. Point Reyes would incorporate more than 40 miles of Pacific shoreline north of San Francisco, including Drakes Bay and Tomales Point. Padre Island National Seashore covers 20 miles of the long Texas barrier island on the Gulf of Mexico. These far-flung seashore acquisitions brought to the Service truly national responsibilities for coastal preservation and recreation.

Greenbelt Park, Maryland, like Catoctin and Prince William parks, lacks "national" designation but is listed today as a unit of the System. It was transferred from the Public Housing Authority in 1950 when the adjoining Baltimore-Washington Parkway was acquired from the Bureau of Public Roads. The suburban park offers camping for visitors to the Washington area and trails and other recreational opportunities for regional residents.
National Park System Additions 1933-1963

1933
June 16 Blue Ridge Parkway, North Carolina and Virginia (date of authorization; acquired by NPS 1936)
Aug. 22 Cedar Breaks NM, Utah

1934
May 30 Everglades NP, Florida
June 14 Ocmulgee NM, Georgia
June 19 Natchez Trace Parkway, Mississippi, Alabama, and Tennessee (date of authorization; acquired by NPS 1938)
June 21 Monocacy NMP, Maryland (reauthorized and redesignated a NB 1976)
June 26 Thomas Jefferson Memorial, District of Columbia

1935
Jan. 4 Fort Jefferson NM, Florida
June 20 Big Bend NP, Texas
Aug. 21 Fort Stanwix NM, New York (date authorized; acquired 1973)
Aug. 29 Andrew Johnson NM, Tennessee (redesignated a NHS 1963)
Dec. 20 Jefferson National Expansion Memorial NHS, Missouri (memorial authorized 1954)

1936
March 2 Richmond NBP, Virginia
March 19 Homestead NM of America, Nebraska
May 26 Fort Frederica NM, Georgia
June 2 Perry's Victory and International Peace Memorial NM, Ohio (redesignated Perry's Victory and International Peace Memorial 1972)
June 29 Whitman Mission NM, Washington (redesignated a NHS 1963)
Aug. 16 Joshua Tree NM, California
Oct. 13 Boulder Dam NRA, Nevada and Arizona (redesignated Lake Mead NRA 1947)
Nov. 14 Catoctin Recreation Demonstration Area, Maryland (redesignated Catoctin Mountain Park 1954)
Nov. 14 Chopawamsic Recreation Demonstration Area, Virginia (redesignated Prince William Forest Park 1948)

1937
April 13 Organ Pipe Cactus NM, Arizona
Aug. 2 Capitol Reef NM, Utah (redesignated a NP 1971)
Aug. 17 Cape Hatteras NS, North Carolina
Aug. 25 Pipestone NM, Minnesota
1938
March 17 Salem Maritime NHS, Massachusetts
April 26 Channel Islands NM, California (incorporated in Channel Islands NP 1980)
June 1 Saratoga NHP, New York
June 29 Olympic NP, Washington (incorporated Mount Olympus NM)
July 16 Fort Laramie NM, Wyoming (redesignated a NHS 1960)
Aug. 3 Hopewell Village NHS, Pennsylvania
Sept. 23 Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, District of Columbia and Maryland (designated a NM 1961; incorporated in Chesapeake and Ohio Canal NHP 1971)

1939
May 26 Federal Hall Memorial NHS, New York (redesignated Federal Hall NMem 1955)
May 26 Philadelphia Custom House NHS, Pennsylvania (incorporated in Independence NHP 1959)
July 1 Mount Rushmore NMem, South Dakota (date of NPS acquisition)
July 25 Tuzigoot NM, Arizona

1940
March 4 Kings Canyon NP, California (incorporated General Grant NP)
May 10 Manassas NBP, Virginia
June 11 Cumberland Gap NHP, Kentucky, Virginia, and Tennessee
July 1 National Cemetery of Custer’s Battlefield Reservation, Montana (date of NPS acquisition; redesignated Custer Battlefield NM 1946)
Aug. 12 Fort Washington Park, Maryland (date of NPS acquisition)
Dec. 18 Vanderbilt Mansion NHS, New York

1941
April 5 Fort Raleigh NHS, North Carolina

1943
March 15 Jackson Hole NM, Wyoming (incorporated in new Grand Teton NP 1950)
July 14 George Washington Carver NM, Missouri

1944
Jan. 15 Home of Franklin D. Roosevelt NHS, New York
June 30 Harpers Ferry NM, West Virginia, Maryland, and Virginia (redesignated a NHP 1963)
Oct. 13 Atlanta Campaign NHS, Georgia (abolished 1950)

1946
Aug. 12 Castle Clinton NM, New York
Dec. 9 Adams Mansion NHS, Massachusetts (redesignated Adams NHS 1952)
Dec. 18 Coulee Dam NRA, Washington

1947
April 25 Theodore Roosevelt NMemP, North Dakota (redesignated a NP 1978)

1948
March 11 DeSoto NMem, Florida
June 19 Fort Vancouver NM, Washington (redesignated a NHS 1961)
June 22 Hampton NHS, Maryland
June 28 Independence NHP, Pennsylvania
July 12 Fort Sumter NM, South Carolina (date of acquisition from Army)

1949
Feb. 14 San Juan NHS, Puerto Rico
June 8 Saint Croix Island NM, Maine (redesignated an International Historic Site 1984)
Aug. 17 Suitland Parkway, Maryland and District of Columbia (date of NPS acquisition; incorporated in National Capital Parks 1975)
Oct. 25 Effigy Mounds NM, Iowa

1950
Aug. 3 Baltimore-Washington Parkway, Maryland (date of NPS acquisition; incorporated in National Capital Parks 1975)
Aug. 3 Greenbelt Park, Maryland
Sept. 14 Grand Teton NP, Wyoming (incorporated 1929 NP and Jackson Hole NM)
Sept. 21 Fort Caroline NMem, Florida

1951
Sept. 15 Grand Portage NHS, Minnesota (redesignated a NM 1958)

1952
March 4 Virgin Islands NHS, Virgin Islands (redesignated Christiansted NHS 1961)
June 27 Shadow Mountain NRA, Colorado (transferred to USFS 1978)
July 9 Coronado NMem, Arizona

1954
June 28 Fort Union NM, New Mexico

1955
July 26 City of Refuge NHP, Hawaii (redesignated Pu’uhonua o Honaunau NHP 1978)
Dec. 6 Edison Home NHS, New Jersey (incorporated in Edison NHS 1962)
1956
April 2 Booker T. Washington NM, Virginia
July 14 Edison Laboratory NM, New Jersey (incorporated in Edison NHS 1962)
July 20 Pea Ridge NMP, Arkansas
July 25 Horseshoe Bend NMP, Alabama
Aug. 2 Virgin Islands NP, Virgin Islands

1957
April 2 Golden Spike NHS, Utah (acquisition authorized 1965)

1958
April 18 Glen Canyon NRA, Utah and Arizona
May 29 Fort Clatsop NMem, Oregon

1959
April 14 Minute Man NHS, Massachusetts (redesignated a NHP Sept. 21)
Aug. 14 General Grant NMem, New York (date of NPS acquisition)

1960
April 22 Wilson’s Creek NBP, Missouri (redesignated a NB 1970)
June 3 Bent’s Old Fort NHS, Colorado
July 6 Arkansas Post NMem, Arkansas
Sept. 13 Haleakala NP, Hawaii (detached from Hawaii NP)
Dec. 24 St. Thomas NHS, Virgin Islands (abolished 1975)

1961
May 11 Russell Cave NM, Alabama
Aug. 7 Cape Cod NS, Massachusetts
Sept. 8 Fort Davis NHS, Texas
Sept. 13 Fort Smith NHS, Arkansas
Oct. 4 Piscataway Park, Maryland
Dec. 28 Buck Island Reef NM, Virgin Islands

1962
Feb. 19 Lincoln Boyhood NMem, Indiana
April 27 Hamilton Grange NMem, New York
May 31 Whiskeytown-Shasta-Trinity NRA, California (Whiskeytown Unit)
July 25 Sagamore Hill NHS, New York
July 25 Theodore Roosevelt Birthplace NHS, New York
Sept. 5 Edison NHS, New Jersey (incorporated Edison Home NHS and Edison Laboratory NM)
Sept. 5 Frederick Douglass Home, District of Columbia
Sept. 13 Point Reyes NS, California
Sept. 28 Padre Island NS, Texas
The Hartzog Years, 1964 to 1972

The nine years from 1964 through 1972 began with the formal administrative division of the National Park System into natural, historical, and recreational area categories and concluded with the centennial observance of the first national park, Yellowstone. Sixty-nine of the 334 units present in 1984 were authorized or acquired during these 9 years—nearly three-quarters as many as had been permanently added in the preceding 30 years. The director during these years was George B. Hartzog, Jr., who came to the office at a favorable time. Mission 66, the 10-year program of upgrading the parks, was coming to an end. Stewart L. Udall, Secretary of the Interior, found in Hartzog a willing ally who would push Udall’s expansionist and activist park policy for President Lyndon B. Johnson’s “Great Society.” Backed by a rejuvenated System and his Secretary’s support, Hartzog was set to put his imprint upon the Service.

On July 10, 1964, Secretary Udall signed a key management policy memorandum based on recommendations from Director Hartzog. “In looking back at the legislative enactments that have shaped the National Park System,” it said, “it is clear that the Congress has included within the growing System three different categories of areas—natural, historical, and recreational. . . . Each of these categories requires a separate management concept and a separate set of management principles coordinated to form one organic management plan for the entire System.” Natural areas were to be managed for perpetuation and restoration of their natural values, although significant historic features within a natural area should be maintained “to the extent compatible with the primary purpose for which the area was established.” In historical areas these emphases were reversed. In recreational areas, both natural and historic resource preservation would be subordinate to management for outdoor recreation. Use of such areas would focus on “active participation in outdoor recreation in a pleasing environment.”

At the time, as was noted in the last chapter, most areas assigned to the recreational category were technically excluded from the National Park System by the legal definition of 1953. That law reflected concern that if reservoirs and other artificially developed recreation
facilities were admitted anywhere in the System, they would degrade it and might soon invade the traditional parks as well. The Udall policy memorandum seemingly violated the 1953 law by granting System membership to such areas, but it allayed concern that they might taint the natural parks by placing them in a distinct subclass with distinct management policies. Separate policy manuals were developed for the three area categories and appeared in 1968. Two years later law caught up with administrative initiative when Congress redefined the System to include all areas administered "for park, monument, historic, parkway, recreational, or other purposes" by the National Park Service.

The Udall memorandum also prescribed a Service objective "to develop the National Park System through inclusion of additional areas of scenic, scientific, historical and recreational value to the Nation." This perennial mission of the bureau, expansionist from its beginnings, was reiterated in the Service policy memorandum signed June 18, 1969, by Udall's successor, Secretary Walter J. Hickel: "The National Park System should protect and exhibit the best examples of our great national landscapes, riverscapes and shores and undersea environments; the processes which formed them; the life communities that grow and dwell therein; and the important landmarks of our history. There are serious gaps and inadequacies which must be remedied while opportunities still exist if the System is to fulfill the people's need always to see and understand their heritage of history and the natural world.

"You should continue your studies to identify gaps in the System and recommend to me areas that would fill them. It is my hope that we can make a significant contribution to rounding out more of the National Park System in these next few years."

With this charge in hand, Hartzog ordered preparation of a National Park System Plan, published in 1972. The history component of the Plan employed a modified version of the theme structure used in studies for identifying national historic landmarks. Historical parks were assigned to the various thematic elements, revealing gaps wherever the elements were unrepresented in the System. Developed to provide the greatest possible rationale for expansion, the history
component determined that at least 196 new parks were needed to treat fully all major facets of American history and prehistory. The natural history component of the Plan, taking a similar approach, identified more than 300 aspects of natural history requiring initial or greater representation in the System.

Although recreational areas did not lend themselves to the same kind of thematic analysis and were not addressed in the Plan, interest in them did not wane. Their number doubled from 1964 to 1972. Of the 69 new and permanent additions during the Hartzog administration, 27 were classed as recreational—three times as many as the 9 new natural areas and not far behind the 33 new historical units.

**Natural Areas**

Of the 10 natural areas added during the period, 1 was later incorporated in an existing national park, leaving 9 remaining in today's System. Five of these were new national parks. This notable achievement would not have happened without vigorous efforts by the Service going back many years, newly awakened public and congressional interest, and financial support stemming from the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965. As amended in 1968, the act earmarked revenues from visitor fees, surplus property sales, motorboat fuel taxes, and offshore oil and gas leasing for Federal and state parkland acquisition.

Canyonlands National Park was established in 1964 to protect a wild area of exceptional scenic, scientific, and archeological importance at the confluence of the Green and Colorado rivers in southeastern Utah. In 1971 President Richard M. Nixon approved legislation adding substantial public land to Canyonlands, bringing the park's total area to more than 337,000 acres.

Congress authorized Guadalupe Mountains National Park in 1966 to preserve an area in west Texas "possessing outstanding geological values together with scenic and other natural values of great significance." Proposed for inclusion in the System as early as 1933, the park's mountain mass and adjoining lands cover more than 76,000 acres and include portions of the world's most extensive Permian limestone fossil reef.

North Cascades National Park, Washington, embraces 504,780 acres of wild alpine country with jagged peaks, mountain lakes, and glaciers. From the start this undertaking was surrounded by intense controversy involving timber and mining interests, conservationists, local governments, and several Federal bureaus including the Forest Service, the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, and the Park Service. The park was finally authorized in 1968 simultaneously with Redwood National Park, California. Redwood, which also followed long
and bitter controversy, was intended "to preserve significant examples of the primeval coastal redwood forests and the streams and seashores with which they are associated for purposes of public inspiration, enjoyment and scientific study." Within its legislated boundaries, enlarged in 1978 to encompass 109,000 acres, are three California state parks dating from the 1920s, 30 miles of Pacific coastline, and the world's tallest trees.

The last new national park of the period was Voyageurs, on the northern edge of Minnesota, authorized in 1971 to preserve the "scenery, geological conditions, and waterway system which constituted a part of the historic route of the Voyageurs who contributed significantly to the opening of the Northwestern United States." It occupies some 220,000 acres of remote northern lake country.

Besides the five new national parks, two former national monuments, Arches and Capitol Reef in Utah, were upgraded to national park status by legislation in 1971, and a new national monument, Biscayne in the upper Florida keys, formed the basis for Biscayne National Park in 1980. Three other new monuments—Agate Fossil Beds, Nebraska; Florissant Fossil Beds, Colorado; and Fossil Butte, Wyoming—were authorized by acts of Congress to preserve outstanding deposits of mammal, insect, and fish fossils. The fifth new monument, Marble Canyon, was proclaimed by President Johnson to protect the 50-mile canyon of the Colorado River between Grand Canyon National Park and Glen Canyon National Recreation Area. Grand Canyon National Park was enlarged to encompass the monument in 1975.

Of great importance to natural preservation in the System during and after this period was the Wilderness Act of September 3, 1964. It read in part: "In order to assure that an increasing population, accompanied by expanding settlement and growing mechanization, does not occupy and modify all areas within the United States and its possessions, leaving no lands designated for preservation and protection in their natural condition, it is hereby declared to be the policy of the Congress to secure for the American people of present and future generations the benefits of an enduring resource of wilderness. For this purpose there is hereby established a National Wilderness Preservation System to be composed of federally owned areas designated by Congress as 'wilderness areas', and these shall be administered for the use and enjoyment of the American people in such manner as will leave them unimpaired for future use and enjoyment as wilderness."

The act defined wilderness as "an area where the earth and its community of life are untrammeled by man, where man himself is a
visitor who does not remain.” For designation as wilderness an area was to be without permanent improvements or human habitation, to retain “its primeval character and influence,” and generally to contain at least 5,000 acres. Among other provisions, the act directed the Secretary of the Interior to review within 10 years every roadless area of 5,000 acres or more in the National Park System and report to the President on the suitability of each for preservation as wilderness. The President would then report his recommendations to Congress for action.

Although many portions of the System were clearly wilderness and had long been managed as such, the act forced a careful examination of all potentially qualifying lands and consideration as to which should be perpetuated indefinitely without roads, use of motorized equipment, structures, or other development incompatible with formal wilderness designation. By 1972, many areas had been studied and two—in Petrified Forest National Park and Craters of the Moon National Monument—had been confirmed as wilderness by Congress.

**Historical Areas**

Historical additions again led the other categories, with 35 new or essentially new arrivals in the years 1964-1972. Two—Mar-A-Largo National Historic Site and the National Visitor Center—were subsequently dropped from the System, leaving 33 from the period with us today.

Nearly a quarter of the new historical areas were presidential sites. The first, Herbert Hoover National Historic Site in 1965, commemorated Hoover at his birthplace, childhood home, and burial place in West Branch, Iowa. In 1966 the Ansley Wilcox House in Buffalo, New York, where Theodore Roosevelt became President after William McKinley’s assassination, was added to the System, becoming known as Theodore Roosevelt Inaugural National Historic Site. The Roosevelt memorial on Theodore Roosevelt Island in Washington, D.C., was dedicated a year later. In 1967 Dwight D. Eisenhower saw his last residence and farm at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, designated a national historic site, and his successor, John F. Kennedy, was recognized by a national historic site at his Brookline, Massachusetts, birthplace and first residence. William Howard Taft National Historic Site, containing the Cincinnati birthplace and boyhood home of that President, and the Lyndon B. Johnson National Historic Site, ultimately comprising Johnson’s birthplace, boyhood home, grandfather’s ranch, and LBJ Ranch in Blanco and Gillespie counties, Texas, were both authorized on December 2, 1969. Finally, the property most illustrative of Abraham Lincoln’s pre-presidential career, his residence in Springfield, Illinois, became the Lincoln Home National Historic Site in 1972.
This fifth Lincoln site brought him to a tie with Theodore Roosevelt as the most commemorated President in the National Park System.

Although the period saw a moratorium on new battlefield parks, other military history additions continued. Two frontier army posts, Fort Bowie, Arizona, and Fort Larned, Kansas, became national historic sites in 1964. Congress authorized Fort Scott Historic Area, Kansas, a year later as a cooperative venture outside the System, with the Service assisting local jurisdictions and owners in marking and developing the fort and nearby historic properties. In 1978 Fort Scott was redesignated a national historic site and came under Service administration. George Rogers Clark National Historical Park, 1966, in Vincennes, Indiana, centered on an existing memorial commemorating Clark’s victory over the British in 1779, which bolstered America’s claim to the Old Northwest. In 1970 came Fort Point National Historic Site, encompassing a major coastal fortification of the mid-19th century at San Francisco, and Andersonville National Historic Site, containing the notorious Civil War prison camp in Georgia. One of the last acquisitions of the period was an unassuming Philadelphia boardinghouse that became Thaddeus Kosciuszko National Memorial in 1972 to honor the Polish military engineer who served in the American Revolution and briefly occupied the property later.

Along with the growth in these and other well-represented themes, a few areas treating some previously unrepresented and poorly represented subjects also were acquired. The homes of three figures important in American literature—John Muir, Carl Sandburg, and Henry Wadsworth Longfellow—were recognized as national historic sites. The American sculptor Augustus Saint-Gaudens was similarly honored. A national memorial was authorized for Roger Williams, founder of Rhode Island and a pioneer in religious freedom. The System’s coverage of industry and transportation was strengthened with the addition of Allegheny Portage Railroad National Historic Site, containing the remains of an inclined plane railroad over the mountains in Pennsylvania; Saugus Iron Works National Historic Site, a reconstructed 17th century industrial complex in Massachusetts; and the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal National Historical Park, a major expansion of the existing national monument to encompass significant lands on the north bank of the Potomac River. Another facet of economic and social history was addressed by Grant-Kohrs Ranch National Historic Site, Montana, containing part of one of the largest 19th-century range ranches in the country. Chamizal National Memorial in El Paso, Texas, was established to commemorate the peaceful settlement of a U.S.-Mexico border dispute.

Another general enactment of the period, the National Historic
Preservation Act of October 15, 1966, was of comparable importance to the 1906 Antiquities Act and the 1935 Historic Sites Act in expanding National Park Service preservation activity. Although most of its influence would be felt outside the National Park System, it had major implications within. All historical parks were entered in the National Register of Historic Places authorized by the act, which made Service and other Federal agency actions affecting them subject to evaluation and review by state historic preservation officers and the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, a new Federal agency established by the act. Under a 1971 executive order and a later amendment to the act, the Service also was required to nominate to the National Register all qualifying historic sites and structures in its natural and recreational areas. These resources, most of local or regional significance, were then afforded the same consideration as the historical parks when faced with potentially adverse actions. The effect was to broaden the Service’s concern for all its cultural properties, including those that had previously received little attention.

**Recreational Areas**

Twenty-seven new areas were assigned to the recreational category in the years 1964 through 1972—a remarkable average of three per year. Nearly half were national seashores and reservoir-related areas in the tradition of those added before, and there was one more parkway. The others were new kinds of areas: national lakeshores, rivers, performing arts facilities, a trail, and two major urban recreation complexes.

The accelerated increase in recreational areas in the System during the period resulted from several factors, including groundwork laid by the Service in earlier surveys, establishment of the Land and Water Conservation Fund, and greater pressures and support for Federal involvement in outdoor recreation during the Kennedy and Johnson administrations. In 1963 the recently formed Recreation Advisory Council, composed of six cabinet-level officials, had proposed a system of national recreation areas and set criteria for them. They were to be spacious, generally including at least 20,000 acres of land and water. They were to be within 250 miles of urban population centers and designed to achieve high recreation carrying capacities, with outdoor recreation opportunities significant enough to attract interstate patronage. Their natural endowments should be “well above the ordinary in quality and recreation appeal, being of lesser significance than the unique scenic and historic elements of the National Park System, but affording a quality of recreation experience which transcends that normally associated with areas provided
by State and local governments." The scale of investment and development should be sufficiently high to warrant Federal involvement. Cooperative management arrangements with the Forest Service, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, and possibly other Federal bureaus were expected with the Park Service playing a leading role at certain areas.

The recreational area category formally adopted by the Park Service in 1964 partially reflected the Recreation Advisory Council's criteria, although not all Park System units that the Service assigned to the category were of the type envisioned by the Council. Several of the national seashores, lakeshores, rivers, and reservoir-based areas most nearly complied with the national recreation area criteria; others were categorized as recreational areas by default, because they did not fully accord with the standards and policies for natural or historical areas.

Five new national seashores joined the four previously authorized and the new, but comparable, designation of national lakeshore was applied to four additions on the Great Lakes. The Service had sought preservation of most of these areas since the mid-1950s, when its seashore surveys were largely completed. The System acquired no further lakeshores and only one more seashore (Canaveral) in the decade after 1972, so this subcategory had evolved to virtually its present extent by the end of the period under consideration.

In most cases establishment of these shoreline reservations forestalled development of residential subdivisions, highways, and commercial facilities and preserved threatened natural and historical features. The areas provided important outdoor recreation opportunities in natural environments without the kind of intensive development for mass recreation typified by Jones Beach, New York.

Fire Island National Seashore, not far east of Jones Beach, protects some 25 miles of largely unspoiled barrier beach 50 miles from downtown Manhattan. Contrary to the Recreation Advisory Council's position that outdoor recreation should be the dominant management purpose in such areas, the seashore's enabling act specified that "the Secretary [of the Interior] shall administer and protect the Fire Island National Seashore with the primary aim of conserving the natural resources located there."

Assateague Island National Seashore, authorized a year later in 1965, occupies a 35-mile-long barrier island on the Eastern Shore of Maryland and Virginia within reach of the Baltimore and Washington metropolitan areas. Political compromises resulted in joint management by the National Park Service, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, and Maryland Park Service. In exchange for local support of the
seashore legislation, the Service was legally directed to build a highway and major concessions developments along the island, but conservationists' opposition led to repeal of these provisions in 1976. A new management plan for Assateague emphasizes natural preservation rather than development for mass recreation.

Cape Lookout National Seashore, extending southwest from Cape Hatteras National Seashore on the Outer Banks of North Carolina, was authorized by a 1966 act that repeated the general statement of purpose originally legislated for Assateague: "The Secretary shall administer the ... Seashore for the general purposes of public outdoor recreation, including conservation of natural features contributing to public enjoyment." Although conservation was thus subordinated to recreation, Cape Lookout, too, has been lightly developed for recreational use.

Gulf Islands National Seashore, authorized in 1971, came closer than its predecessors to the Council's vision of a national recreation area. The islands in its Mississippi portion, however, accessible only by boat, contained natural and historic features whose preservation was of paramount importance, and a Spanish-American fort near Pensacola, Florida, was a national historic landmark.

The final national seashore of the period, Cumberland Island, Georgia, was least consistent with the recreation area concept. Its 1972 legislation included stringent development restrictions: with certain exceptions, "the seashore shall be permanently preserved in its primitive state, and no development of the project or plan for the convenience of visitors shall be undertaken which would be incompatible with the preservation of the unique flora and fauna . . . , nor shall any road or causeway connecting Cumberland Island to the mainland be constructed." It remains among the most "natural" of the seashores.

The four national lakeshores generally followed the seashore pattern. Indiana Dunes, on the southern shore of Lake Michigan between Gary and Michigan City, Indiana, had been proposed as a national park as early as 1917. Although it was the most urban of the four, serving the greater Chicago area, its legislation stressed natural conservation at least as much as recreation. Sleeping Bear Dunes, occupying 34 miles of shoreline on upper Lake Michigan, was to be administered "in a manner which provides for recreational opportunities consistent with the maximum protection of the natural environment within the area." Pictured Rocks, Michigan, the first of the national lakeshores, and Apostle Islands, Wisconsin, both on the south shore of Lake Superior, also protected resources of great natural and scenic value. Had the laws authorizing most of the
seashores and lakeshores not permitted hunting, an activity prohibited in the national parks and monuments, many would have readily fitted the Service's natural area category.

During these years the Service became involved at eight existing or proposed reservoirs. Four of these national recreation areas—Bighorn Canyon, Delaware Water Gap, Lake Chelan, and Ross Lake—were authorized by special acts of Congress; Service responsibilities at the others were set by cooperative agreements with other agencies. Most resembled their predecessors, but Delaware Water Gap, Lake Chelan, and Ross Lake deserve special mention.

Ross Lake and Lake Chelan, Washington, were authorized together in 1968 with the adjacent North Cascades National Park. They were planned as areas in which to concentrate physical development, especially visitor accommodations, outside the national park—the first time a provision of this type was made at the outset in conjunction with park legislation. The Ross Lake area lies between the north and south units of the national park, which is adjoined by Lake Chelan on the southeast. The park and the two national recreation areas collectively embrace more than 684,240 acres of magnificent mountain country in the Cascade Range.

Delaware Water Gap National Recreation Area in Pennsylvania and New Jersey was authorized in 1965 to encompass the proposed Tocks Island Reservoir, a 37-mile-long Corps of Engineers impoundment, and scenic lands in the adjoining Delaware Valley totaling 71,000 acres. The System's first national recreation area east of the Mississippi, it was envisioned to serve 10 million visitors annually from the New York and Philadelphia metropolitan areas. But the Tocks Island Dam came under heavy attack from conservationists and others, especially after the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 forced greater consideration of the environmental effects of such projects. Without repealing the authorization for the dam, Congress in 1978 ordered the lands acquired by the Corps to be transferred to the Service and made the Delaware River within the recreation area a national scenic river—a designation incompatible with its damming. There is little likelihood that the area will become what was originally planned, at least during this century.

The first of the national rivers and scenic riverways was Ozark National Scenic Riverways in southeastern Missouri, authorized by Congress in 1964 "for the purpose of conserving and interpreting unique scenic and other natural values and objects of historic interest, including preservation of portions of the Current River and the Jacks Fork River in Missouri as free-flowing streams, preservation of springs and caves, management of wildlife, and provisions for use
and enjoyment of the outdoor recreation resources thereof by the people of the United States.” This linear area incorporated some 140 miles of river and three state parks in its nearly 80,000 acres.

The Ozark authorization was a forerunner of the comprehensive Wild and Scenic Rivers Act of October 2, 1968, which instituted a national wild and scenic rivers system based on conservationist philosophy: “It is hereby declared to be the policy of the United States that certain selected rivers of the Nation, which, with their immediate environments, possess outstandingly remarkable scenic, recreational, geologic, fish and wildlife, historic, cultural, or other similar values, shall be preserved in free-flowing condition, and that they and their immediate environments shall be protected for the benefit and enjoyment of present and future generations. The Congress declares that the established national policy of dams and other construction at appropriate sections of the rivers of the United States needs to be complemented by a policy that would preserve other selected rivers or sections thereof in their free-flowing condition to protect the water quality of such rivers and to fulfill other vital national conservation purposes.”

The act identified eight rivers and adjacent lands in nine states as initial components of the national wild and scenic rivers system, to be administered variously by the secretaries of Agriculture and Interior. Twenty-seven others were named to be studied for potential addition to the system. It was anticipated that some of those found eligible would be managed by states and localities. Of the eight initial components only one, St. Croix National Scenic Riverway in Minnesota and Wisconsin, became a unit of the National Park System. Ideal for canoeing, it contains some 200 miles of the St. Croix River and its Namekagon tributary noted for wildness, clear flowing water, and abundant wildlife. All or portions of three of the study areas later joined the Park System: the Lower St. Croix National Scenic Riverway was authorized in 1972, and the Rio Grande Wild and Scenic River and the Upper Delaware Scenic and Recreational River followed together in 1978.

On March 1, 1972, the Yellowstone centennial date, Congress authorized a related addition not proposed in the Wild and Scenic Rivers Act—Buffalo National River, Arkansas. Its 94,146 acres encompass 132 miles of the clear, free-flowing Buffalo, multicolored bluffs, and numerous springs.

On the same day that President Johnson approved the Wild and Scenic Rivers Act, North Cascades and Redwood national parks, and Lake Chelan and Ross Lake national recreation areas, he also signed the National Trails System Act. The act’s initial policy statement
defined its purpose: “In order to provide for the ever-increasing outdoor recreation needs of an expanding population and in order to promote public access to, travel within, and enjoyment and appreciation of the open-air, outdoor areas of the Nation, trails should be established (i) primarily, near the urban areas of the Nation, and (ii) secondarily, within established scenic areas more remotely located.

“The purpose of this act is to provide the means for attaining these objectives by instituting a national system of recreation and scenic trails.”

National recreation trails, accessible to urban areas, would be designated by the Secretary of the Interior or the Secretary of Agriculture according to specified criteria and guidelines; national scenic trails, generally longer and more remote, would be established only by Congress. The act designated two national scenic trails as initial components of the system: the Appalachian Trail, extending from Mount Katahdin, Maine, to Springer Mountain, Georgia; and the Pacific Crest Trail, running from Mexico to Canada along the Cascades, Sierras, and other ranges.

The Pacific Crest Trail was to be administered by the Secretary of Agriculture and the Appalachian Trail by the Secretary of the Interior. The Appalachian Trail was thus brought into the National Park System. Already well established, it had been conceived in 1921 by Benton MacKaye, forester and philosopher, who saw it as the backbone of a primeval environment. Initially four older New England trail systems, including Vermont’s Long Trail begun in 1910, were linked to begin the Appalachian Trail. Additions were made farther south, including long sections through national forests in Virginia and North Carolina. The 2,000-mile trail was essentially completed in 1937 when the last short stretch was opened on Maine’s Mount Sugarloaf.

An advisory council appointed by the Secretary of the Interior includes representatives of the Appalachian Trail Conference, the 14 States through which the trail passes, other private organizations, and involved Federal agencies. The National Park Service is responsible for protection, development, and maintenance of the trail within Federally administered areas but encourages the states to care for portions outside Federal jurisdiction.

The National Trails System Act ordered 14 other routes to be studied for possible national scenic trail designation. Two were later designated, and four more became national historic trails upon enactment of legislation in 1978. But the Appalachian Trail is the only such entity under Service administration.

The fourth and most recent parkway currently classed as a unit of
the System is the John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Memorial Parkway, Wyoming. Authorized August 25, 1972, the 82-mile scenic corridor, which uses existing roads, links West Thumb in Yellowstone and the south entrance of Grand Teton National Park. It commemorates Rockefeller's significant financial support for many parks, including Grand Teton.

Through the civic-mindedness of Catherine Filene Shouse another new type of area was added to the System. She donated part of her Wolf Trap Farm in Fairfax County, Virginia, to the United States so that it might be developed and maintained as a performing arts center in the National Capital area. The Filene Center, an open-sided auditorium, was completed for the first summer season of performances in 1971. Programs then and since have gained a faithful following in the Washington area. The Filene Center was destroyed by fire in 1982 but has been rebuilt. Performances are arranged by the private Wolf Trap Foundation.

The other area intended primarily as a performing arts facility is the John F. Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts in Washington, D.C. The massive structure with its concert hall, opera house, Eisenhower Theater, two smaller theaters, and restaurants was designed by Edward Durrell Stone and opened in 1972. On June 16 of that year a congressional enactment assigned to the National Park Service "maintenance, security, information, interpretation, janitorial and all other services necessary to the nonperforming arts functions" of the center, which serves as the national memorial to President Kennedy.

Two other units of the System where the performing arts play major roles, Chamizal National Memorial and Ford's Theatre National Historic Site, have historical commemoration and interpretation as their primary purposes and were each classed as historical areas.

On October 27, 1972, President Nixon signed legislation establishing two areas of great consequence for the System: Gateway National Recreation Area in New York City and nearby New Jersey and Golden Gate National Recreation Area in Marin and San Francisco counties, California. Each contains seacoast beaches, but their proximity to metropolitan New York and San Francisco and the inclusion of other elements make them far more urban in character and patronage than the national seashores previously established.

Gateway encompasses four major units. In Jamaica Bay, the primary aim is conservation of bird life and other natural resources. Elsewhere, at Breezy Point, Staten Island, and Sandy Hook, recreational beach use predominates, although the legislation made special provision for preserving, interpreting, and using the historic sites and structures on Sandy Hook and Staten Island. Sandy Hook's Fort
Hancock and the Sandy Hook Proving Grounds were designated a national historic landmark in 1982. As at most of the other recreational areas, hunting is permitted in designated sections. Gateway covers more than 26,000 acres.

Golden Gate was established "to preserve for public use and enjoyment certain areas ... possessing outstanding natural, historic, scenic, and recreational values, and in order to provide for the maintenance of needed recreational open space necessary to urban environment and planning." The park was authorized to contain 72,815 acres by 1984. Much was taken from Army installations no longer needed for military purposes. Besides its ocean beaches, Golden Gate includes a redwood forest, marshes, historic ships of the National Maritime Museum, historic coastal defense works, and Alcatraz Island with the remains of its infamous penitentiary.

Before Gateway and Golden Gate, virtually all the Service’s holdings in major urban areas—outside the Washington, D.C., vicinity—had been small historic sites, where the primary concerns were historic preservation and interpretation. These two acquisitions placed the Service squarely in the business of urban mass recreation. This departure was controversial, and attendant major burdens of funding, staffing, and management refocus would not be met without stress in the decade ahead.
National Park System Additions 1964-1972

1964
Aug. 27 Ozark NSR, Mississippi
Aug. 30 Fort Bowie NHS, Arizona
Aug. 31 Allegheny Portage Railroad NHS, Pennsylvania
Aug. 31 Fort Larned NHS, Kansas
Aug. 31 John Muir NHS, California
Aug. 31 Johnstown Flood NMem, Pennsylvania
Aug. 31 Saint-Gaudens NHS, New Hampshire
Sept. 11 Fire Island NS, New York
Sept. 12 Canyonlands NP, Utah
Dec. 31 Bighorn Canyon NRA, Wyoming and Montana

1965
Feb. 1 Arbuckle NRA, Oklahoma (incorporated in Chickasaw NRA 1976)
Feb. 11 Curecanti NRA, Colorado
March 15 Sanford NRA, Texas (redesignated Lake Meredith Recreation Area 1972)
May 15 Nez Perce NHP, Idaho
June 5 Agate Fossil Beds NM, Nebraska
June 28 Pecos NM, New Mexico
Aug. 12 Herbert Hoover NHS, Iowa
Aug. 28 Hubbell Trading Post NHS, Arizona
Aug. 31 Alibates Flint Quarries and Texas Panhandle Pueblo Culture NM, Texas (redesignated Alibates Flint Quarries NM 1978)
Aug. 31 Fort Scott Historic Area, Kansas (redesignated Fort Scott NHS and acquisition authorized 1978)
Sept. 1 Delaware Water Gap NRA, Pennsylvania and New Jersey
Sept. 21 Assateague Island NS, Maryland and Virginia
Oct. 22 Roger Williams NMem, Rhode Island
Nov. 11 Amistad NRA, Texas

1966
March 10 Cape Lookout NS, North Carolina
June 20 Fort Union Trading Post NHS, North Dakota and Montana
June 30 Chamizal NMem, Texas
July 23 George Rogers Clark NHP, Indiana
Sept. 9 San Juan Island NHP, Washington
Oct. 15 Guadalupe Mountains NP, Texas
Oct. 15 Pictured Rocks NL, Michigan
Oct. 15 Wolf Trap Farm Park for the Performing Arts, Virginia
Nov. 2 Theodore Roosevelt Inaugural NHS, New York
Nov. 5 Indiana Dunes NL, Indiana
1967
May 26 John Fitzgerald Kennedy NHS, Massachusetts
Nov. 27 Eisenhower NHS, Pennsylvania
1968
March 12 National Visitor Center, District of Columbia (abolished 1981)
April 5 Saugus Iron Works NHS, Massachusetts
Oct. 2 Lake Chelan NRA, Washington
Oct. 2 North Cascades NP, Washington
Oct. 2 Redwood NP, California
Oct. 2 Ross Lake NRA, Washington
Oct. 2 Saint Croix NSR, Minnesota and Wisconsin (assigned to NPS 1969)
Oct. 17 Carl Sandburg Home NHS, North Carolina
Oct. 18 Biscayne NM, Florida (incorporated in Biscayne NP 1980)
1969
Jan. 20 Marble Canyon NM, Arizona (incorporated in Grand Canyon NP 1975)
Aug. 20 Florissant Fossil Beds NM, Colorado
Dec. 2 Lyndon B. Johnson NHS, Texas (redesignated a NHP 1980)
Dec. 2 William Howard Taft NHS, Ohio
1970
Sept. 26 Apostle Islands NL, Wisconsin
Oct. 10 Fort Point NHS, California
Oct. 16 Andersonville NHS, Georgia
Oct. 21 Sleeping Bear Dunes NL, Michigan
1971
Jan. 8 Chesapeake and Ohio Canal NHP, District of Columbia, Maryland, and West Virginia (incorporated Chesapeake and Ohio Canal NM)
Jan. 8 Gulf Islands NS, Florida and Mississippi
Jan. 8 Voyageurs NP, Minnesota
Aug. 18 Lincoln Home NHS, Illinois
1972
March 1 Buffalo NR, Arkansas
June 16 John F. Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts, District of Columbia (date of NPS acquisition)
Aug. 17 Puukohola Heiau NHS, Hawaii
Aug. 25 Grant-Kohrs Ranch NHS, Montana
Aug. 25 John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Memorial Parkway, Wyoming
Oct. 9 Longfellow NHS, Massachusetts
Oct. 21 Hohokam-Pima NM, Arizona
Oct. 21 Thaddeus Kosciuszko NMem, Pennsylvania
Oct. 23 Cumberland Island NS, Georgia
Oct. 23 Fossil Butte NM, Wyoming
Oct. 25 Lower Saint Croix NSR, Minnesota and Wisconsin
Oct. 27 Gateway NRA, New York and New Jersey
Oct. 27 Golden Gate NRA, California
In the final years of this account, the increase in the number of National Park System areas kept pace with the explosive growth of the preceding period. Seventy-three essentially new areas were added between the beginning of 1973 and 1984—four more than during the nine Hartzog years. Numbers of units alone do not tell the full story, for as a result of huge additions in Alaska in 1978-1980 the System's total land area more than doubled. Paralleling this growth, however, was an increasing sense that the System was expanding too fast for its own good, and new park acquisitions virtually ceased after 1980.

Director Hartzog was succeeded in January 1973 by Ronald H. Walker, a former staff assistant to President Nixon. Walker appointed a career service employee, Russell E. Dickenson, as his deputy. Walker and Dickenson chose to place consolidation of past gains above further expansion at the previous rate, believing that Service funding and staffing would be insufficient to sustain such a continued influx. In a departure from recent stands, the Service and Interior Department, backed by the Secretary's prestigious Advisory Board on National Parks, opposed proposals for two more big urban recreation areas—Cuyahoga Valley outside Cleveland, Ohio, and Santa Monica Mountains near Los Angeles. Gateway and Golden Gate had been intended as models for state and local recreation areas elsewhere, they contended, not as prototypes for future units of the National Park System serving essentially local populations.

The new slow-growth posture had little effect at first. Congress authorized 14 new parks during Walker's two years as director. Nearly half were small historic sites assembled in an omnibus bill. But they also included the first two national preserves, the controversial Cuyahoga Valley National Recreation Area, and a major historical park in Boston—a mosaic of properties owned by private individuals and local and Federal governments.

Walker was followed by Gary Everhardt, a career employee. In 1975, the first year of the Everhardt administration, the bureau tightened its written criteria for proposed national parklands. To be favorably recommended before, an area had to be nationally significant and lend itself to administration, preservation, and public use. Now the Service also would consider whether the area was assured of
adequate protection outside the System and whether it would be available for public appreciation and use under such protection. "If these two criteria will be met by other means," the new policy stated, "the Service would not ordinarily recommend the addition of the area to the System."

A majority in Congress, however, were still favorably disposed toward expansion. Section 8 of the General Authorities Act of October 7, 1976, ordered explicit steps to be taken to this end: "The Secretary of the Interior is directed to investigate, study, and continually monitor the welfare of areas whose resources exhibit qualities of national significance and which may have potential for inclusion in the National Park System. At the beginning of each fiscal year, the Secretary shall transmit to the Speaker of the House of Representatives and to the President of the Senate, comprehensive reports on each of those areas upon which studies have been completed. On this same date, and accompanying such reports, the Secretary shall transmit a listing, in generally descending order of importance or merit, of not less than twelve such areas which appear to be of national significance and which may have potential for inclusion in the National Park System." A 1980 amendment to Section 8 also required submission of an updated National Park System Plan "from which candidate areas can be identified and selected to constitute units of the National Park System."

William J. Whalen, who had been superintendent of Golden Gate National Recreation Area, became director in mid-1977 with the recommendation of Rep. Phillip Burton of California, chairman of the parks subcommittee in the House of Representatives and a powerful advocate of expansion. Whalen was sympathetic to urban areas and the many new park proposals advanced by Burton and his colleagues. Another omnibus bill approved November 10, 1978—characterized by critics as "park barrel" legislation—authorized 12 additions to the System. Among them was Santa Monica Mountains National Recreation Area, enacted despite another opposing resolution by the Secretary's Advisory Board.

Russell E. Dickenson succeeded Whalen as director in May 1980 and brought with him his predilection for taking care of existing hold-
ings rather than growth. Acquisition indeed slowed during his tenure. Outside Alaska, six entirely new parks—all of them small historic sites—were authorized or established during the remainder of the Carter administration. When President Ronald Reagan’s first Secretary of the Interior, James G. Watt, took office in 1981, Dickenson found him in full agreement that the Service should improve its stewardship of what it had before seeking to absorb more. Consistent with their position, the 97th Congress (1981-1982) eliminated appropriations for the new area studies dictated by Section 8, acquiesced in Dickenson’s decision to shelve the expansionist National Park System Plan, and did not authorize a single new park. Instead, it and the next Congress supported the Service’s Park Restoration and Improvement Program, which would devote more than a billion dollars over the coming five years to stabilize and upgrade existing park resources and facilities.

A policy change predating Dickenson’s appointment affected the organizational structure of the System. By the mid-1970s the natural, historical, and recreational management categories to which System areas had been assigned since 1964 were proving cumbersome. The recreational category was the chief source of difficulty. Although some areas were clearly recreational in character and use, the category became a catchall for others that might have been classed with the traditional natural areas but for the fact that hunting or certain other activities were permitted. The labeling of such areas as recreational implied that natural conservation within them would be secondary to development for heavy public use—development and use that might be ecologically harmful. Conservationists among the public and in Congress were disturbed about this implication for such outstanding areas as Cape Cod and Pictured Rocks.

The Service responded first in 1975 by replacing its separate natural, historical, and recreational area policy manuals with a single management policy compilation that addressed the range of characteristics that each park possessed. A mostly natural area, for example, might also have important cultural features and portions suitable for recreational development. It would be zoned accordingly in its general management plan, and the different zones would be managed by policies applicable to each.

With this significant advance in planning and management sophistication, the assignment of each park to a single category was no longer appropriate, and in 1977 the area categories were officially abolished. For convenience, of course, the Service still refers informally to most areas as natural, historical, or recreational based on their predominant characteristics.
Natural Areas  Twenty-six natural areas now in the System were added (in whole or large part) between 1973 and 1980. This was two more than the number of new natural additions from the years 1933 (post-reorganization) through 1972. Twenty of the 26 were in Alaska, and 2 others—Channel Islands National Park, California, and Biscayne National Park, Florida—were based on existing national monuments. Two more preexisting units, Badlands and Theodore Roosevelt in the Dakotas, achieved national park status. Only four natural parks outside Alaska were entirely new.

The first two of these, authorized by consecutive enactments on October 11, 1974, formed a new subcategory as well. Big Cypress, Florida, and Big Thicket, Texas, were made national preserves. According to Service publicity on the subject, national preserves are “primarily for the protection of certain resources. Activities such as hunting and fishing or the extraction of minerals and fuels may be permitted if they do not jeopardize the natural values.” Although such uses had rendered other areas ineligible for the natural category and had caused them to be classed as recreational, Big Cypress and Big Thicket were even less suited for the latter category. The two preserves pointed up the cumbersome nature of the management categories and were yet another reason for their abolition in 1977.

Big Cypress National Preserve, encompassing 570,000 acres adjoining Everglades National Park on the northwest, was established primarily to protect the freshwater supply essential to the Everglades ecosystem. Containing abundant tropical plant and animal life, it continues to serve the Miccosukee and Seminole Indian tribes for subsistence hunting, fishing, and trapping and traditional tribal ceremonials. Big Thicket National Preserve includes a significant portion of the Big Thicket area of East Texas. Its 12 detached units, totaling 84,550 acres in 7 counties, protect a dense growth of diverse plant species of great botanical interest. Establishment of the preserve followed an off and on battle since the 1930s between conservation groups and timber interests.

John Day Fossil Beds National Monument, Oregon, was authorized in the omnibus bill approved October 26, 1974. In common with the Agate Fossil Beds, Florissant Fossil Beds, and Fossil Butte national monuments established in the preceding period, it protected important deposits of plant and animal fossils within its 14,100 acres. The last of the entirely new natural areas outside Alaska was Congaree Swamp National Monument, South Carolina, authorized two years later. On an alluvial floodplain southeast of Columbia, the 15,200-acre monument contains the last significant tract of virgin bottomland hardwoods in the Southeast.
Historical Areas  In these years half of the new areas dealt primarily with American history or prehistory. A third of these were military and presidential sites; the remainder addressed themes less well represented in the System.

The presidential sites included a landscaped memorial to Lyndon B. Johnson in Washington, D.C., and the homes of Martin Van Buren, James A. Garfield, and Harry S Truman. In December 1982 after Bess Truman's death, Secretary James Watt designated the Harry S Truman National Historic Site in Independence, Missouri, under the Historic Sites Act. Legislation was passed early in the next Congress to authorize funds for its administration by the Service.

Among the eight military history additions was Boston National Historical Park, which included Bunker Hill and its famous monument, Dorchester Heights, Faneuil Hall, Old North Church, Old South Meeting House, and the Boston Naval Shipyard—berth for USS Constitution. Springfield Armory National Historic Site, where U.S. military small arms were manufactured from 1794 to 1968, was significant in industrial as well as military history. Valley Forge, long a Pennsylvania state park, became a national historical park on the bicentennial date of July 4, 1976. The Mexican War and World War II, not previously represented by combat sites, achieved such representation with Palo Alto Battlefield National Historic Site, Texas, for the former and War in the Pacific National Historical Park, Guam, and the USS Arizona Memorial, Hawaii, for the latter.

The barely tapped subjects of literature, drama, and the arts made further progress in the System with the addition of national historic sites for playwright Eugene O'Neill in California, author and critic Edgar Allan Poe in Pennsylvania, and landscape architect and author Frederick Law Olmsted in Massachusetts.

Parks treating social and humanitarian movements also increased their number. Four new sites in this category focused on women: Clara Barton National Historic Site, Maryland, home of the founder of the American Red Cross; Sewall-Belmont House National Historic Site in Washington, D.C., commemorating the women's suffrage leader Alice Paul; Eleanor Roosevelt National Historic Site, Mrs. Roosevelt's retreat at Hyde Park, New York; and Women's Rights National Historical Park, including the home of Elizabeth Cady Stanton and other sites related to the early women's movement in Seneca Falls, New York.

There was only one addition, other than Springfield Armory, focusing on industrial history, but it was an important one. Lowell National Historical Park, Massachusetts, incorporated 19th century factory buildings, a power canal system, and other significant ele-
ments of America’s first planned industrial community. Like Boston National Historical Park, it is a blend of public and private ownership.

Black history achieved further representation with three new areas. Tuskegee Institute National Historic Site includes historic portions of the pioneering industrial education school established by Booker T. Washington in Alabama in 1881. Maggie L. Walker National Historic Site in Richmond, Virginia, commemorates a black woman who became the first woman president of an American financial institution. Martin Luther King, Jr., National Historic Site in Atlanta contains the birthplace, church, and grave of the prominent civil rights leader. Two more black history sites were established by Congress as “affiliated areas” outside the System: Boston African American National Historic Site (1980), with 16 related pre-Civil War structures, and Mary McLeod Bethune Council House National Historic Site (1982) at the Washington, D.C., home of the noted educator and political adviser.

Most of the cultural properties assigned to the National Park Service upon its creation in 1916 dealt with aboriginal peoples, and such properties continued as a major component of the System throughout its evolution. The two entirely new prehistoric additions during this period (outside Alaska) were Knife River Indian Villages National Historic Site, North Dakota, containing important Hidatsa village remnants; and Kaloko-Honokohau National Historical Park, with three large fishponds, house sites, and other archeological evidences of Hawaiian native culture. Two of the earliest prehistoric national monuments were significantly enlarged. Chaco Culture National Historical Park, New Mexico, superseded Chaco Canyon National Monument and added 33 outlying “Chaco Culture Archeological Protection Sites.” Congress authorized special protective measures for the outlying sites that were threatened by extensive mineral exploration and development. Salinas National Monument, also in New Mexico, incorporated the old Gran Quivira National Monument and two state monuments containing Pueblo Indian and Spanish mission ruins.

Recreational Areas Eleven new areas that would formerly have been classed as recreational were brought into the System during these years. One was a national seashore, one was a reservoir-based national recreational area, three were urban national recreation areas, and the remainder were national rivers of various designations.

Canaveral National Seashore, Florida, is the most recently established national seashore. It occupies 25 miles of undeveloped barrier island supporting many species of birds and other wildlife. The lands
and waters administered by the Service adjoin the Kennedy Space Center and Merritt Island National Wildlife Refuge. Canaveral’s legislation emphasized natural preservation in its statement of purpose and prohibited new construction and development beyond that necessary for public safety and proper administration.

Chickasaw National Recreation Area, the reservoir-based addition, incorporated Arbuckle National Recreation Area and Platt National Park in Oklahoma. Although Platt had been one of the early national parks, it occupied only 912 acres and had never measured up to its prestigious designation.

Cuyahoga Valley National Recreation Area, between Cleveland and Akron, Ohio, was established to preserve “the historic, scenic, natural, and recreational values of the Cuyahoga River and the adjacent lands of the Cuyahoga Valley and for the purpose of providing for the maintenance of needed recreational open space necessary to the urban environment.” Its 32,460 acres included a portion of the Ohio and Erie Canal that had previously been designated a national historic landmark. Chattahoochee River National Recreation Area in and northeast of Atlanta, Georgia, though considerably smaller, was established to serve similar purposes for its metropolitan area. The third such addition was Santa Monica Mountains National Recreation Area, authorized to cover 150,000 acres of rugged chaparral-covered landscape fronting on the sandy beaches above Los Angeles. Its legislation prescribed management “in a manner which will preserve and enhance its scenic, natural, and historical setting and its public health value as an airshed for the Southern California metropolitan area while providing for the recreational and educational needs of the visiting public.”

The first national river of the period brought into the System was Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, centered on the Big South Fork of the Cumberland River and its tributaries in Tennessee and Kentucky. The area’s scenic gorges and valleys encompass numerous natural and historic features. Next came Obed Wild and Scenic River in East Tennessee, where the Obed River and its principal tributaries cut through the Cumberland Plateau. The last four river additions (outside Alaska), all authorized by the omnibus National Parks and Recreation Act of 1978, were the Delaware National Scenic River in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, containing the Delaware within Delaware Water Gap National Recreation Area; the Upper Delaware Scenic and Recreational River, containing most of the Delaware between Pennsylvania and New York; New River Gorge National River, West Virginia, encompassing a rugged section of one of the oldest rivers on the continent; and Rio Grande Wild and
Scenic River, covering 191 miles of the American bank of the Rio Grande downstream from Big Bend National Park, Texas.

**New Alaska Parklands** One of the great conservation campaigns of the century produced a fitting climax to this account of the System’s evolution: the new national parklands in Alaska. The addition of these enormous acreages to the Park System was one of the far-reaching results of Alaska’s admission to the Union in 1959.

The Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act of December 18, 1971, contained a provision of tremendous consequence for the national conservation systems. Section 17(d)(2) of the act directed the Secretary of the Interior “to withdraw from all forms of appropriation under the public land laws ... and from selection under the Alaska Statehood Act, and from selection by Regional Corporations ... up to, but not to exceed, eighty million acres of unreserved public lands in the State of Alaska ... which the Secretary deems are suitable for addition to or creation as units of the National Park, Forest, Wildlife Refuge, and Wild and Scenic Rivers Systems. ...” He had two years to make specific recommendations for additions to the four systems from the withdrawn lands, and the recommended lands would remain withdrawn until Congress acted—for up to five more years.

On the second anniversary deadline, Secretary Rogers C. B. Morton transmitted his recommendations, which included 32.3 million acres for parklands at a time when the entire System then encompassed some 31 million acres. The recommendations were controversial, especially in Alaska, where there was strong opposition to so much land being removed from potential economic exploitation and other uses incompatible with park status. Bills introduced by both supporters and opponents made little headway until the 95th Congress in 1977-1978, the last two years for legislative action before the withdrawals expired. A strong conservation bill in that Congress introduced by Rep. Morris K. Udall of Arizona, which went beyond the Morton recommendations in significant respects, incorporated the national preserve concept to allow for sport hunting in areas bearing that designation rather than in certain national parks, as Morton had proposed.

A modified version of Udall’s H.R. 39 passed the House of Representatives on May 18, 1978, but Senators Mike Gravel and Ted Stevens of Alaska blocked action on a comparable measure in the Senate, and the 95th Congress adjourned in October without an Alaska lands act. The land withdrawals were due to expire on December 18. Faced with this prospect, President Jimmy Carter on December 1 took the extraordinary step of proclaiming 15 new national monu-
ments and two major monument additions on the withdrawn lands. Of the new monuments, 2 were under Forest Service jurisdiction and 2 under the Fish and Wildlife Service; the other 11 were additions to the National Park System. (The Fish and Wildlife monuments, Becharof and Yukon Flats, were later incorporated in national wildlife refuges; the Forest Service monuments, Misty Fjords and Admiralty Island, retain their identities under that bureau.)

The national monuments, proclaimed under authority of the 1906 Antiquities Act, were stopgaps; Congress could hardly be expected to provide funds for administering areas it had declined to approve. The purpose was to withhold the areas from other disposition at least until the next Congress could reconsider protective legislation.

Bills were reintroduced in the 96th Congress and a revised H.R. 39 sponsored by Reps. Udall and John Anderson of Illinois passed the House on May 16, 1979. Alaska's senators, allied with a range of commercial interests and sportsmen's groups, again fought to limit additions to the restrictive national park and wildlife refuge systems. A somewhat weaker conservation bill finally cleared the Senate on August 19, 1980. After Ronald Reagan's defeat of President Carter in November, supporters of the House bill decided to accept the Senate bill rather than risk an impasse before congressional adjournment and a less acceptable bill in years to come. The House approved the Senate measure on November 12, and on December 2 Carter signed into the law the Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act (ANILCA).

ANILCA contributed to the National Park System the remarkable total of 47,080,730 acres, exceeding the nearly 45 million acres assigned it by the provisional national monument proclamations and surpassing by nearly 50 percent the 32.3 million acres proposed seven years before. The act converted most of the national monuments to national parks and preserves, the latter permitting sport hunting and trapping. Before December 1978 Alaska had contained one national park, two national monuments, and two national historical parks. After December 1980 its parklands included eight national parks, two national monuments, ten national preserves, two national historical parks, and one wild river.

Mount McKinley National Park was renamed Denali National Park after the Indian name for the mountain and was joined by a Denali National Preserve. Together the park and preserve contain 4,000,000 acres more than the older national park. The old Glacier Bay and Katmai national monuments became national parks, with adjoining national preserves. The Glacier Bay park and preserve gained some 470,000 acres over the old monument, while the two Katmai areas exceed the old Katmai monument by nearly 1,300,000 acres.
Wrangell-St. Elias National Park contains 8,331,406 acres. Adjacent Wrangell-St. Elias National Preserve contains some 4,873,000 acres. Together they comprise an area larger than the combined area of Vermont and New Hampshire and contain the continent's greatest array of glaciers and peaks above 16,000 feet—among them Mount St. Elias, rising second only to Mount McKinley in the United States. With Canada's adjacent Kluane National Park this is one of the greatest areas of parklands in the world.

Gates of the Arctic National Park, whose 7,498,000 acres lie entirely north of the Arctic Circle, and the 943,000-acre national preserve of the same name include part of the Central Brooks Range, the northernmost extension of the Rockies. Gentle valleys, wild rivers, and numerous lakes complement the jagged mountain peaks.

Adjoining Gates of the Arctic on the west is Noatak National Preserve. Its 6,557,000 acres are drained by the Noatak River, which runs through the 65-mile-long Grand Canyon of the Noatak, and contain a striking array of plant and animal life and hundreds of prehistoric archeological sites in what is the largest untouched river basin in the United States.

Bering Land Bridge National Preserve with 2,774,000 acres on the Seward Peninsula covers a remnant of the land bridge that connected North America and Asia more than 13,000 years ago. Modern Eskimos manage their reindeer herds in and around the preserve, which features rich paleontological and archeological resources, large migratory bird populations, ash explosion craters, and lava flows.

The 2,634,000-acre Lake Clark National Park and the 1,405,500-acre Lake Clark National Preserve are set in the heart of the Chigmit Mountains on the western shore of Cook Inlet, southwest of Anchorage. The 50-mile-long Lake Clark, largest of more than 20 glacial lakes, is fed by hundreds of waterfalls tumbling from the surrounding mountains and is headwaters for an important red salmon spawning ground. Jagged peaks and granite spires have caused the region to be called the Alaskan Alps.

Yukon-Charley Rivers National Preserve protects 115 miles of the Yukon and the entire 88-mile Charley River basin within its 2,517,000 acres. Abandoned cabins and other cultural remnants recall the Yukon's role during the 1898 Alaska gold rush. The Charley, running swift and clear, is renowned for whitewater recreation. Grizzly bears, Dall sheep, and moose are among the abundant wildlife.

Kobuk Valley National Park, another Arctic area of 1,749,000 acres, adjoins the south border of Noatak National Preserve. Its diverse terrain includes the northernmost extent of the boreal forest and the 25-square-mile Great Kobuk Sand Dunes, the largest active
dune field in Arctic latitudes. Archeological remains are especially rich, revealing more than 10,000 years of human activity.

Kenai Fjords National Park contains 676,000 acres. On the Gulf of Alaska near Seward, it is named for the scenic glacier-carved fjords along its coast. Above is the Harding Icefield, 1 of 4 major ice caps in the United States, from which radiate 34 major glacier arms. Sea lions and other marine mammals abound in the coastal waters.

Cape Krusenstern National Monument, north of Kotzebue on the Chukchi Sea, is the single new Alaskan unit of predominantly cultural rather than natural significance. Containing 656,685 acres, it is by far the largest such area in the System. One hundred fourteen lateral beach ridges formed by changing sea levels and wave action display chronological evidence of 5,000 years of marine mammal hunting by Eskimo peoples. Older archeological sites are found inland.

Of the 1980 Alaska parks, the smallest is Aniakchak National Monument, whose 136,955 acres lie on the harsh Aleutian Peninsula southwest of Katmai. It is adjoined by the 466,238-acre Aniakchak National Preserve. Their central feature is the great Aniakchak Caldera, a 30-square-mile crater of a collapsed volcano. Within the caldera are a cone from later volcanic activity, lava flows, explosion pits, and Surprise Lake, which is heated by hot springs and cascades through a rift in the crater wall.

ANILCA also designated 13 wild rivers for Park Service administration. Twelve are entirely within parks, monuments, and preserves and are not listed as discrete units of the System. Part of the remaining one, Alagnak Wild River, lies outside and westward of Katmai; it is therefore counted separately. It offers salmon sport fishing and whitewater floating.

Overall, the size and quantity of the new Alaska parklands is matched fully by their superlative quality. While political and economic arguments had been raised against them, few if any challenged the inherent scenic, scientific, and cultural merits that made the lands so clearly eligible for the National Park System. The System has been immeasurably enriched by their inclusion.
National Park System Additions 1973-1984

1973
Dec. 28 Lyndon Baines Johnson Memorial Grove on the Potomac, D.C.

1974
March 7 Big South Fork National River and Recreation Area, Kentucky and Tennessee (assigned to NPS 1976)
Oct. 1 Boston NHP, Massachusetts
Oct. 11 Big Cypress NPres, Florida
Oct. 11 Big Thicket NPres, Texas
Oct. 26 Clara Barton NHS, Maryland
Oct. 26 John Day Fossil Beds NM, Oregon
Oct. 26 Knife River Indian Villages NHS, North Dakota
Oct. 26 Martin Van Buren NHS, New York
Oct. 26 Sewall-Belmont House NHS, District of Columbia
Oct. 26 Springfield Armory NHS, Massachusetts
Oct. 26 Tuskegee Institute NHS, Alabama
Dec. 27 Cuyahoga Valley NRA, Ohio

1975
Jan. 3 Canaveral NS, Florida

1976
March 17 Chickasaw NRA, Oklahoma (incorporated Platt NP and Arbuckle NRA)
June 30 Klondike Gold Rush NHP, Alaska and Washington
July 4 Valley Forge NHP, Pennsylvania
Aug. 19 Ninety Six NHS, South Carolina
Oct. 12 Fort Benton, Montana
Oct. 12 Obed WSR, Tennessee
Oct. 18 Congaree Swamp NM, South Carolina
Oct. 18 Eugene O'Neil NHS, California
Oct. 21 Monocacy NB, Maryland (reauthorization and redesignation of Monocacy NMP)

1977
May 26 Eleanor Roosevelt NHS, New York

1978
June 5 Lowell NHP, Massachusetts
Aug. 15 Chattahoochee River NRA, Georgia
Aug. 18 War in the Pacific NHP, Guam
Nov. 10 Delaware NSR, Pennsylvania and New Jersey
Nov. 10 Edgar Allen Poe NHS, Pennsylvania
Nov. 10 Friendship Hill NHS, Pennsylvania
Nov. 10 Jean Lafitte NHP and Preserve, Louisiana (incorporated Chalmette NHP)
Nov. 10 Kaloko-Honokohau NHP, Hawaii
Nov. 10 Maggie L. Walker NHS, Virginia
Nov. 10 New River Gorge NR, West Virginia
Nov. 10 Palo Alto Battlefield NHS, Texas
Nov. 10 Rio Grande WSR, Texas
Nov. 10 San Antonio Missions NHP, Texas
Nov. 10 Santa Monica Mountains NRA, California
Nov. 10 Thomas Stone NHS, Maryland
Nov. 10 Upper Delaware Scenic and Recreational River, Pennsylvania and New York

Dec. 1 Aniakchak NM, Alaska—incorporated in legislated Aniakchak NM and NPres Dec. 2, 1980
Dec. 1 Bering Land Bridge NM, Alaska—redesignated a NPres Dec. 2, 1980
Dec. 1 Cape Krusenstern NM, Alaska
Dec. 1 Denali NM, Alaska—incorporated with Mount McKinley NP in Denali NP and NPres Dec. 2, 1980
Dec. 1 Glacier Bay NM, Alaska—addition to preexisting NM; total incorporated in Glacier Bay NP and NPres Dec. 2, 1980
Dec. 1 Katmai NM, Alaska—addition to preexisting NM, total incorporated in Katmai NP and NPres Dec. 2, 1980
Dec. 1 Lake Clark NM, Alaska—incorporated in Lake Clark NP and NPres Dec. 2, 1980

1979
Oct. 12 Frederick Law Olmsted NHS, Massachusetts

1980
March 5 Channel Islands NP, California (incorporated Channel Islands NM)
June 28 Biscayne NP, Florida (incorporated Biscayne NM)
July 1 Vietnam Veterans Memorial, District of Columbia
Sept. 9 USS *Arizona* Memorial, Hawaii
Oct. 10 Martin Luther King, Jr., NHS, Georgia
Dec. 2 Alagnak Wild River, Alaska
Dec. 19 Chaco Culture NHP, New Mexico (incorporated Chaco Canyon NM)
Dec. 19 Salinas NM, New Mexico (incorporated Gran Quivira NM)
Dec. 22 Kalaupapa NHP, Hawaii
Dec. 28 James A. Garfield NHS, Ohio
Dec. 28 Women's Rights NHP, New York

1982

Dec. 8 Harry S Truman NHS, Missouri
Ideals into Reality

All national parklands are not created equal. Besides the obvious physical distinctions between and within the basic types of areas in the National Park System—natural and historical, urban and wilderness, battlefield and birthplace, Arctic and tropical—there are qualitative differences as well. Plainly put, some of the System’s 334 areas are better than others.

From the beginning, the National Park Service has officially admitted to seeking and acquiring only the most outstanding lands and resources, with “national significance” as the primary criterion. In a 1918 policy letter to Director Stephen T. Mather, Secretary of the Interior Franklin K. Lane clearly articulated this position: “In studying new park projects, you should seek to find scenery of supreme and distinctive quality or some natural feature so extraordinary or unique as to be of national interest and importance. You should seek distinguished examples of typical forms of world architecture; such, for instance, as the Grand Canyon, as exemplifying the highest accomplishment of stream erosion, and the high, rugged portion of Mount Desert Island as exemplifying the oldest rock forms in America and the luxuriance of deciduous forests.

“The national park system as now constituted should not be lowered in standard, dignity, and prestige by the inclusion of areas which express in less than the highest terms the particular class or kind of exhibit which they represent.”

At its second meeting in May 1936, the Secretary’s Advisory Board on National Parks, Historic Sites, Buildings, and Monuments approved a comparable standard for historical parks prepared by Chief Historian Verne E. Chatelain: “The general criterion in selecting areas administered by the Department of the Interior through the National Park Service whether natural or historic, is that they shall be outstanding examples in their respective classes. The number of Federal areas must be necessarily limited, and care should be exercised to prevent the accumulation of sites of lesser rank.”

Guidelines for evaluating national significance have been prepared and refined over the years, with separate criteria being developed for areas that are primarily natural, historical, and recreational. The versions current at this writing appear in the Service’s Management
Policies. Historical parks should be associated with persons, events, or themes of national importance; should encompass structures or features of great intrinsic or representational value; or should contain archeological resources of major scientific consequence. A natural park might be an outstanding or rare example of geologic landform or biotic area, a place of exceptional ecological or geological diversity, a site with a concentrated population of rare plant or animal species or unusually abundant fossil deposits, or an outstandingly scenic area. In both cases, integrity is vital: a historic place should not be so modified, deteriorated, or otherwise impaired as to be incapable of communicating its significance; a natural area should be "a true, accurate, essentially unspoiled example of natural history."
The criteria for national recreation areas are modifications of those issued by the Recreation Advisory Council in 1963; they stress spaciousness and high resource quality, accessibility to urban populations, potential for attracting national as well as regional visitation, and high projected levels of investment and development warranting Federal involvement.

Almost from the beginning, some additions to the System did not measure up to the ideals expressed in the policies and criteria. The very next park after Yellowstone, Mackinac Island National Park, suffered from lumbering and private incursions during its administration by the War Department. Stripped of its timber and the site of a new resort for the rich, Mackinac was ceded to the State of Michigan in 1895, 20 years after its establishment. Sully's Hill National Park, North Dakota, established in 1904, lacked special distinction; it was transferred in 1931 to the Department of Agriculture as a game preserve. Another early national park that did not measure up to its rank, Platt, bore the designation from 1906 to 1976, when it was added to a larger national recreation area.

A few other places of questionable national significance have been admitted to the System over the years and remain in its ranks. Why has the System these imperfections? The unsurprising truth is that the professionally developed guidelines for evaluating national significance have not always been foremost in the minds of those responsible for new parklands. The Service transmits its recommendations on
new area legislation through the Department of the Interior to Congress, but Congress makes the final decisions. Its perception of public sentiment behind a park proposal will tend to outweigh its devotion to abstract standards—and quite properly so in a representative democracy. A park bill backed by an influential constituency and lacking significant outside opposition is thus apt to proceed without great regard for the opinions of historians, archeologists, scientists, or other professional specialists in the bureaucracy. Once established via this process, a park is unlikely to be abolished or demoted to other custody.

Can we blame Congress for any shortcomings in the System, then? Not entirely. The Service itself is no ivory tower institution, immune from public and political pressures and motivated solely by ideals. It is a government bureau dependent on congressional appropriations and popular support for its survival and prosperity. From its earliest days, Stephen Mather, Horace Albright, and their successors strove to expand its public and political constituencies by acquiring more parks in more places—natural areas in the East, the military parks and other historic sites, parkways, seashores, and urban recreational resources. Inevitably, not all the new areas serving new people in new political jurisdictions equaled the Yosemites and Grand Canyons.

At bottom, much of the controversy over what should be acquired has stemmed from different perceptions of what the System should be. Purists in and outside the Service deplored the addition of such natural parks as Shenandoah, which had been cut over and existed in a less than primeval state. They and others who equated the System with natural preservation saw the influx of historical areas in the 1930s as diffusing its identity. Both natural and historical park partisans did not all welcome the parkways, the reservoir-based areas, and others added less for intrinsic resource quality than for recreational use. Some of these additions, typified most recently by Gateway and Golden Gate, tended to be disproportionately demanding of funds and manpower at the expense of the other parks—another reason for critics to begrudge them.

Today's System, it is fair to say, is both more and less than it might be. That it has edged into certain areas of essentially state and local concern was perhaps inevitable, evolving as it did over decades when the Federal Government enlarged its role across the board. That its quality has sometimes been compromised was surely inevitable, given the public and political involvement in its evolution befitting a democratic society. All things considered, the wonder is not that the System has fallen short of the ideals set for it, but that it has come so close. In it are a remarkable representation of the nation's greatest
natural and historic places and recreational areas of outstanding attraction. Not every park is a Yellowstone, not every historic site boasts an Independence Hall. But nearly all have resources and values that make them something special—even nationally significant. With good reason, the National Park System is among America’s proudest and best loved creations.
Appendix
As of 1984 there were 30 properties affiliated with but not included in the National Park System. Neither owned by the United States nor administered by the National Park Service, they became “affiliated areas” upon designation by secretaries of the Interior under the 1935 Historic Sites Act or by individual acts of Congress. They may receive technical or financial assistance in accordance with the legislation or cooperative agreements defining their relationship with the Service.

The areas are listed alphabetically here, with the dates of their secretarial designation or congressional authorization. Brief descriptions of each appear in the Service’s *Index*.

American Memorial Park, Saipan; August 18, 1978
Benjamin Franklin National Memorial, Pennsylvania; October 25, 1972
Boston African American National Historic Site, Massachusetts; October 10, 1980
Cherokee Strip Living Museum, Kansas; October 12, 1976
Chicago Portage National Historic Site, Illinois; January 3, 1952
Chimney Rock National Historic Site, Nebraska; August 2, 1956
David Berger National Memorial, Ohio; March 5, 1980
Ebeys Landing National Historical Reserve, Washington; November 10, 1978
Father Marquette National Memorial, Michigan; December 20, 1975
Gloria Dei (Old Swedes’) Church National Historic Site, Pennsylvania; November 17, 1942
Green Springs Historic District, Virginia; December 12, 1977
Historic Camden, South Carolina; May 24, 1982
Ice Age National Scenic Trail, Wisconsin; October 3, 1980
Ice Age National Scientific Reserve, Wisconsin; October 13, 1964
Iditarod National Historic Trail, Alaska; November 10, 1978
Illinois and Michigan Canal National Heritage Corridor, Illinois; August 24, 1984
International Peace Garden, North Dakota-Manitoba; October 25, 1949
Jamestown National Historic Site, Virginia; December 18, 1940
Lewis and Clark National Historic Trail, Illinois to Oregon; November 10, 1978
McLoughlin House National Historic Site, Oregon; June 27, 1941
Mary McLeod Bethune Council House National Historic Site, District of Columbia; October 15, 1982
Mormon Pioneer National Historic Trail, Illinois to Utah; November 10, 1978
North Country National Scenic Trail, New York to North Dakota; March 5, 1980
Oregon National Historic Trail, Missouri to Oregon; November 10, 1978
Overmountain Victory National Historic Trail, Virginia to South Carolina; September 8, 1980
Pennsylvania Avenue National Historic Site, District of Columbia; September 30, 1965
Pinelands National Reserve, New Jersey; November 10, 1978
Roosevelt Campobello International Park, New Brunswick; July 7, 1964
Saint Paul’s Church National Historic Site, New York; July 5, 1943
Touro Synagogue National Historic Site, Rhode Island; March 5, 1946
The National Park System (continued)

Alaska

Seven national park areas in Alaska have adjoining national preserves, counted as separate units of the National Park System. They are: Aniakchak, Denali, Gates of the Arctic, Glacier Bay, Katmai, Lake Clark, and Wrangell-St. Elias.

Guam

Hawaii

Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands

Parks Authorized Before August 25, 1916

Alaska

Guam

Hawaii

Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands

Parks Authorized 1917 to 1933 (in blue)

Alaska

Guam

Hawaii

Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands
### Index

Numbers in italics refer to photographs, maps, or illustrations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site/Location</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acadia NP</td>
<td>17, 19, 20, 22, 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adams NHS</td>
<td>50, 61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advisory Board</td>
<td>48, 73, 80, 81, 96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advisory Council on Historic Preservation</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agate Fossil Beds NM</td>
<td>65, 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alagnak Wild River</td>
<td>91, 94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albright, Horace M.</td>
<td>18, 24, 44, 98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alibates Flint Quarries NM</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allegheny Portage Railroad NHS</td>
<td>67, 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Memorial Park</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amistad NRA</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andersonville NHS</td>
<td>32, 67, 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aniakchak NM and Pres.</td>
<td>91, 93, 95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antietam NBS</td>
<td>29, 30, 37, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appalachian Islands NL</td>
<td>70, 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appalachian NST</td>
<td>73, 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appomattox Court House NHP</td>
<td>38, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arches NP</td>
<td>20, 23, 65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas Post NMem.</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arlington House, The Robert E. Lee Memorial</td>
<td>27-28, 36, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assateague Island NS</td>
<td>69-70, 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aztec Ruins NM</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Badlands NP</td>
<td>20, 23, 47, 83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bandelier NM</td>
<td>20, 23, 34, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barton NHS, Clara</td>
<td>85, 92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bent's Old Fort NHS</td>
<td>51, 61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berger NMem., David</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bering Land Bridge NPres.</td>
<td>90, 93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bethune Council House NHS, Mary McLeod</td>
<td>86, 102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big Bend NP</td>
<td>46, 58, 88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big Cypress NPres.</td>
<td>83, 92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big Hole NB</td>
<td>33, 38, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bighorn Canyon NRA</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big South Fork NR and RA</td>
<td>87, 92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big Thicket NPres.</td>
<td>83, 92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biscayne NP</td>
<td>65, 77, 83, 94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Canyon of the Gunnison NM</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue Ridge Parkway</td>
<td>53-54, 55, 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boston African American NHS</td>
<td>86, 102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boston NHP</td>
<td>85, 86, 92; and Bunker Hill Monument 28, 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brices Cross Roads NBS</td>
<td>38, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryce Canyon NP</td>
<td>20, 22, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buck Island Reef NM</td>
<td>45, 61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buffalo NR</td>
<td>72, 78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cammerer, Arno B.</td>
<td>43, 47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabrillo NM</td>
<td>27, 33, 37, 38, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canyon de Chelly NM</td>
<td>20, 23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canaveral NS</td>
<td>86-87, 92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canyonlands NP</td>
<td>64, 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Cod NS</td>
<td>57, 61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Hatteras NS</td>
<td>56, 57, 58, 79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Krusenstern NM</td>
<td>91, 93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Lookout NS</td>
<td>70, 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capitol Reef NP</td>
<td>43, 58, 65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capulin Mountain NM</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carlsbad Caverns NP</td>
<td>20, 22, 34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carver NM, George Washington</td>
<td>51, 59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casa Grande NM</td>
<td>13, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Castillo de San Marcos NM</td>
<td>33, 39, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Castle Clinton NM</td>
<td>49, 59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catoctin Mountain Park</td>
<td>55-56, 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cedar Breaks NM</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaco Culture NHP</td>
<td>16, 86, 94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chumizal NMem.</td>
<td>67, 74, 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Channel Islands NP</td>
<td>43-44, 59, 83, 93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chatelain, Verne E.</td>
<td>47-48, 96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chattahoochee River NRA</td>
<td>87, 92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cherokee Strip Living Museum</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chesapeake and Ohio NHP</td>
<td>51, 55, 59, 67, 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canal NHP</td>
<td>51, 55, 59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicago Portage NHS</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chickamauga and Chattanooga NMP</td>
<td>29, 37, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chickasaw NRA</td>
<td>15, 16, 76, 92; and Arbuckle NRA 87; and Platt NP 87, 97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chimney Rock NHS</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chiricahua NM</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christiansted NHS</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clark NHP, George</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rogers</td>
<td>27, 37, 67, 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colonial NHP</td>
<td>20, 23, 28, 30, 40, 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado NM</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congaree Swamp NM</td>
<td>83, 92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coronado NMem.</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coulee Dam NRA</td>
<td>50, 59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cowpens NB</td>
<td>30, 38, 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crater Lake NP</td>
<td>11, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craters of the Moon NM</td>
<td>20, 22, 66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumberland Gap NHP</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumberland Island NS</td>
<td>70, 78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curecanti NRA</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Custer Battlefield NM</td>
<td>32, 50, 59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuyahoga Valley NRA</td>
<td>80, 87, 92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death Valley NM</td>
<td>20, 23, 47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware NSR</td>
<td>87, 92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware Water Gap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRA 71, 76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demaray, Arthur E.</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denali NP and Pres.</td>
<td>89, 93; and Mt. McKinley NP 19, 22, 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desoto NMem.</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devils Postpile NM</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devils Tower NM</td>
<td>14, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dickenson, Russell E.</td>
<td>80, 81-82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dinosaur NM</td>
<td>17, 45, 47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Douglass Home, Frederick</td>
<td>51, 61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drury, Newton B.</td>
<td>43, 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eby's Landing NHRes.</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edison NHS</td>
<td>51, 60, 61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eisenhower, Dwight D.</td>
<td>51; NHS 66, 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Morro NM</td>
<td>14, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everglades NP</td>
<td>46, 58, 83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everhardt, Gary</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Hall NMem.</td>
<td>48, 49, 59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fire Island NS</td>
<td>69, 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisher, Walter L.</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florissant Fossil Beds NM</td>
<td>65, 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ford's Theatre NHS</td>
<td>36, 40, 74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fort Bowie NHS 67, 76
Fort Caroline NMem. 60
Fort Clatsop NMem. 61
Fort Davis NHS 51, 61
Fort Donelson NMP 30, 38, 40
Fort Frederica NM 58
Fort Jefferson NM 50, 58
Fort Laramie NHS 50-51, 59
Fort Larned NHS 67, 76
Fort McHenry NM and Historic Shrine 33, 39, 41
Fort Matanzas NM 39, 41
Fort Necessity NB 30, 38, 41
Fort Point NHS 67, 77
Fort Pulaski NM 33, 39, 41
Fort Raleigh NHS 59
Fort Scott NHS 67, 76
Fort Smith NHS 51, 61
Fort Stanwix NM 50, 58
Fort Sumter NM 50, 58
Fort Union NM 51, 60
Fort Union Trading Post NHS 76
Fort Vancouver NHS 51, 60
Fort Washington Park, 33-34, 39, 59
Fossil Butte NM 65, 78
Franklin NMem., Benjamin 102
Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial NHS 30, 38, 41
Friendship Hill NHS 92
Garfield NHS, James A. 85, 94
Gates of the Arctic NP and Pres. 90
Gateway NRA 74-75, 78, 80, 84, 98
Gettysburg NMP 29, 30, 31, 32, 37, 41
Gila Cliff Dwellings NM 34, 35, 39, 41
Glacier Bay NP and Pres. 19, 22, 47, 89
Glacier NP 11, 17, 45
Glen Canyon NRA 56, 61, 63
Gloria Dei Church NHS 102
Golden Gate NRA 74, 75, 78, 80, 98
Golden Spike NHS 48, 51, 61
Grand Canyon NP 20, 22, 23, 34, 39; and Grand Canyon NM 45, 65; and Marble Canyon NM 45, 65, 77
Grand Portage NM 60
Grant Teton NP 20, 22, 35, 44, 60, 74; and Jackson Hole NM 35, 44, 45, 47, 59, 60
Grant, Ulysses S. 26; NMem. 27, 36, 49, 50, 61
Grant-Kohrs Ranch NHS 67, 78
Great Sand Dunes NM 20, 23
Great Smoky Mountains NP 19, 20, 22, 47, 54
Greenbelt Park 57, 60
Green Springs Historic District 102
Guadalupe Mountains NP 64, 76
Guilford Courthouse NMP 29, 38, 41
Gulf Islands NS 70, 77
Haleakala NP 46, 61. See also Hawaii Volcanoes NP
Hamilton Grange NMem. 49, 61
Hampton NHS 48, 60
Harpers Ferry NHP 51, 59
Hartzig, Jr., George B. 62, 63, 80
Hawaii Volcanoes NP 17, 46, 61
Hickel, Walter J. 63
Historic Camden 102
Hohokam Pima NM 78
Hoover, Herbert C. 24, 54; NHS 66, 76
Homestead NM of America 58
Hopewell Village NHS 55, 59
Horseshoe Bend NMP 50, 61
Hot Springs NP 10, 15, 16
Hovenweep NM 22
Hubbell Trading Post NHS 76
Ice Age NST 102
Ice Age National Scientific Reserve 102
Ickes, Harold L. 45, 46, 47, 49, 54
Iditarod NHT 102
II. & Mich. Canal Nat'l Heritage Corridor 102
Independence NHP 21, 49, 59, 60
Indiana Dunes NL 70, 77
International Peace Garden 102
Isle Royale NP 20, 22, 47
Jamestown NHS 102
Jefferson, Thomas: Memorial 50, 58; National Expansion Memorial NHS 48, 49, 58
Jewel Cave NM 34, 39, 41
John Day Fossil Beds NM 83, 92
Johnson NHS, Andrew 32, 50, 58
Johnson Lyndon B. 45, 62, 65; Memorial Grove 85, 92; NHP 66, 77
Johnstown Flood NMem. 76
Joshua Tree NM 43, 45, 58
Kalaupapa NHP 94
Kaloko-Honokohau NHP 86, 93
Katmai NP and Pres. 19, 22, 89, 93
Kenai Fjords NP 91, 93
Kennedy, John F. 45; Center for the Performing Arts 74, 78; NHS 66, 77
Kennesaw Mountain NBP 38, 41
King, Jr. NHS, Martin Luther 86, 94
Kings Canyon NP 11, 46, 59
Kings Mountain NMP 28, 38, 41
Klondike Gold Rush NHP 92
Knife River Indian Villages NHS 86, 92
Kobuk Valley NP 90-91, 93
Kosciuszko NMem., Thaddeus 67, 78
Lafayette NP. See Acadia
Lafitte NHP and Pres., Jean 38, 41, 93; and Chalmette NHP, 29, 32, 37
Lake Chelan NRA 71, 77
Lake Clark NP and Pres. 90, 93
Lake Mead NRA 56, 58
Lake Meredith RA 76
Lanefranklin K. 10, 18, 96
Lassen Volcanic NP 17, 34, 39
Lava Beds NM 20, 22
Lehman Caves NM 34, 40, 41
Lewis and Clark NHT 102
Longfellow NHS, Henry W. 67, 78
Lowell NHP 85-86, 92
Lower Saint Croix NSR 72, 78
McFarland, J. Horace 10, 12-13, 18
Mackinac Island NP 10, 16, 97
McLoughlin House NHS 102
Mammoth Cave NP 20, 22, 34, 46, 47
Manassas NBP 50, 59
Marquette NMem., Father 102
Mather, Stephen T. 18, 52, 96, 98
Mesa Verde NP 8-9, 11, 16
Minute Man NHP 49, 61
Mission 66 42, 62
Monacacy NB 50, 58, 92
Montezuma Castle NM 14, 16
Moores Creek NB 38, 41
Mormon Pioneer NHT 103
Morristown NHP 20, 23, 30
Morton, Rogers C.B. 88
Mound City Group NM 33, 39, 41
Mount Rainier NP 11, 16, 45
Mount Rushmore NMem. 25, 27, 37, 59
Muir, John 10; NHS, 67, 76; Woods NM 16
Natchez Trace Parkway 41, 53-54, 58; and Meriwether Lewis NM 39
National Capital Parks 6, 24-25, 36, 41, 53, 60
National Cemeteries 30, 32
National Historic Landmarks Program 49
National Mall 25, 41
National Park System Plan 63-64, 82
National Register of Historic Places 68
National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings 48
National Visitor Center 66, 77
National Wilderness Preservation System 65
Natural Bridges NM 16
Natural Landmarks 47, 49
Navajo NM 17
New River Gorge NR 87, 93
Nez Perce NHP 76
Ninety Six NHS 92
Noatak NPres. 90, 93
North Cascades NP 64, 71, 77
North Country NST 103
Obed WSR 87, 92
Ocmulgee NM 58
Olmsted, Frederick L. 10; NHS 85, 93
Olympic NP 34, 42, 46, 59
O’Neill NHS, Eugene 85, 92
Oregon Caves NM 34, 40, 41
Oregon NHT 102
Organ Pipe Cactus NM 43, 58
Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission 43
Overmountain Victory NHT 103
Ozark NSR 71-72, 76
Pacific Crest Trail 73
Padre Island NS 57, 61
Palo Alto Battlefield NHS 85, 93
Park Restoration and Improvement Program 82
Pea Ridge NMP 50, 61
Pecos NM 76
Pennsylvania Avenue NHS 103
Perry’s Victory and International Peace Memorial 27, 37, 58
Petersburg NB 30, 38, 41
Petrified Forest NP 14, 16, 66
Pictured Rocks NL 70, 76
Pinelands National Reserve 103
Pinnacles NM 17, 39
Pipe Spring NM 22
Pipestone NM 58
Pisgah National Forest 61
Point Reyes NS 57, 61
Poe, Edgar Allan NHS 85, 92
Policy Decisions 6, 10-13, 18-19, 24, 26, 35, 45-47, 48-49, 62-64, 80-82, 96-99
Prince William Forest Park 55, 58
Pu’uhonua o Honaunau NHP 60
Puukohola Heiau NHS 78
Rainbow Bridge NM 17
Recreation Advisory Council 55, 68-69, 97
Redwood NP 64-65, 77
Richmond NBP 50, 58
Rio Grande WSR 72, 87-88, 93
Rock Creek Park 25, 41
Rockefeller Jr., John D. 20, 44; Memorial Parkway 74, 78
Rocky Mountain NP 11, 17
Roosevelt NHS, Eleanor 85, 92
Roosevelt, Franklin D. 24, 35, 42, 43, 44, 47; Campobello International Park 103; Home of NHS 50, 59
Roosevelt, Theodore 11, 14, 34; Birthplace NHS 49, 50, 61; Inaugural NHS 66, 77; NP 46, 60, 83; Island, 27, 37, 41, 66. See also Sagamore Hill
Ross Lake NRA 71, 77
Russell Cave NM 61
Sagamore Hill NHS 49, 50, 61
Saguaro NM 40, 41
Saint Croix Island IHS 60
St. Croix NSR 72, 77
Saint-Gaudens NHS, Augustus 67, 76
Saint Paul’s Church NHS 103
Salem Maritime NHS 48, 51, 59
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National Park Service
U.S. Department of the Interior

Salinas NM 17, 86, 94
San Antonio Missions NHP 93
Sandburg Home NHS, Carl 67, 77
San Juan Island NHP 76
San Juan NHS 60
Santa Monica Mountains NRA 80, 81, 87, 93
Saratoga NHP 28, 50, 59
Saugus Iron Works NHS 67, 77
Scotts Bluff NHS 22
Seaton, Fred A. 49
Sequoia NP 11, 16
Sewall-Belmont House NHS 85, 92
Shenandoah NP 19-20, 22, 47, 54, 55, 98
Shiloh NMP 30, 37, 41
Sitka NHS 70, 77
Sleeping Bear Dunes NL 70, 77
Springfield Armory NHS 85, 92
Statue of Liberty NM 25, 26, 33, 36, 37, 39, 41
Stone NHS, Thomas 93
Stones River NB 30, 38, 41
Sunset Crater NM 40, 41
Taft, William H. 11; NHS, 66, 77
Timpanogos Cave NM 34, 40, 41
Tonto NM 34, 39, 41
Touro Synagogue NHS 103
Truman, Harry S 44; NHS 85, 94
Tumacacori NM 14, 16
Tupelo NB 38, 41
Tuskegee Institute NHS 86, 92
Tuzigoot NM 59
 Udall, Morris K. 88, 89
 Udall, Stewart L. 47, 62, 63
 Upper Delaware Scenic and Recreational River 72, 93
 USS Arizona Memorial 85, 94
 Vicksburg NMP 29, 30, 38, 41
 Vietnam Veterans Memorial 94
 Virgin Islands NP 46, 61
 Voyageurs NP 65, 77
 Walker NHS, Maggie L. 86, 93
 Walker, Ronald H. 80
 Walnut Canyon NM 34, 40, 41
 War in the Pacific NHP 85, 92
 Washington NM, Booker T. 51, 61
 Washington, George 24, 25; Birthplace NM 20, 23; Memorial Parkway 33, 36, 41, 53; Monument 25, 26, 36, 41
 Watt, James G. 82, 85
 Whalen, William J. 81
 Whiskeytown-Shasta-Trinity NRA 50, 61
 White House 41
 White Sands NM 20, 23, 55
 Whitman Mission NHS 58
 Williams NMem., Roger 67, 76
 Wilson's Creek NB 50, 61
 Wind Cave NP 16, 34
 Wirth, Conrad L. 42-43, 52
 Wolf Trap Farm Park for the Performing Arts 74, 76
 Women's Rights NHP 85, 94
 Wrangell-St. Elias NP and Pres. 90, 93
 Wright Brothers NMem. 27, 37, 39, 41
 Wupatki NM 22
 Yellowstone NP 4-5, 10, 16, 74
 Yosemite NP 10, 11, 16, 46
 Yucca House NM 22
 Yukon-Charley Rivers NPres. 90, 93
 Zion NP 17, 20, 22

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